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ABSTRACT

This book includes the following chapters: "Historical, Theoretical, and Pragmatic Perspectives on Mentoring" (H. Jay Siskin, with Jim Davis); "New Paradigms, Old Practices: Disciplinary Tensions in TA Training" (Elizabeth Guthrie); "The Professional Development of Highly Experienced and Less Experienced Teachers: Meeting Diverse Needs" (Elizabeth B. Bernhardt); "Mentoring in Style: Using Style Information to Enhance Mentoring of Foreign Language Teachers" (Betty Lou Leaver and Rebecca Oxford); "Getting to Know the Face in the Mirror: Reflection in Practice for Teachers and Teacher Educators" (Sangeeta Dhawan); "Meeting the Needs of International TAs in the Foreign Language Classroom: A Model for Extended Training" (Cynthia Chalupa and Anne Lair); "Training Graduate Teachers and Foreign Language Assistants in UK Universities: A Reflective Approach" (John Klapper); "Working with Lecturers and Part-Time Faculty: A Case Study of Russian in the National Capital Area" (Richard Robin); and "Language Teaching: Raising Expectations for Instructor Preparation" (Patricia R. Chaput). (VWL)

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As this is a volume about mentoring, I must acknowledge those who have mentored me in my own professional development: Herbert Eagle and John Mersereau, Jr. of the University of Michigan; and David Bethea, Charles James, Judith Kornblatt, Sally Sieloff Magnan, Gilead Morahg, Yvonne Ozzello, and Gary Rosenshield of the University of Wisconsin-Madison. I am grateful to my Slavic field mentors: Jerry Ervin, Michael Katz, and Frank Miller. I also thank my students who, over the years, have taught me more about teaching than I could ever have taught them. I am especially grateful to my wife, Lisa Fell, and my children, Nathan and Hannah, for their support over the years in more ways than I can possibly describe in words: I dedicate this volume to them.

—*Benjamin Rifkin*, Madison, Wisconsin

AAUSC Remembers Theodore V. Higgs

Theodore V. (Ted) Higgs was an inspiration to members of the AAUSC. We are saddened by his death on August 3, 1999, following complications from cancer and kidney failure.

Among the early members of the AAUSC, Ted served on the Editorial Board of the organization's annual volume from its inception in 1989. Born on August 15, 1940, he received his Ph.D. in theoretical linguistics from Georgetown University. He taught at Pennsylvania State University, New York University, and San Diego State University, where he chaired his department for five years.

An applied linguist specializing in the assessment of language proficiency, Ted was named in 1983 to an ACTFL committee charged with writing proficiency guidelines for Spanish. More recently, he created the Spanish VOCI (Video Oral Communication Instrument) tests, which provided a design for subsequent tests in ESL, French, German, Japanese, and Russian. These tools have been made available through the Language Resource Center at San Diego State University, where he served as a Principal Investigator for nine years.

His publications include two edited volumes and a first-year college Spanish textbook:

Theodore V. Higgs, Ed. *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher*. Skokie, IL: National Textbook, 1982.

Theodore V. Higgs, Ed. T*eaching for Proficiency: The Organizing Principle*. Lincolnwood, IL; National Textbook, 1984.

Theodore V. Higgs, Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, & Frank W. Medley, Jr. *Entradas: El español por etapas*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle, 1989.

But beyond his many professional contributions, Ted is remembered for his sharp wit, good humor, and frank appraisal of any situation. He stimulated and energized groups in which he worked, encouraging diverse and creative thinking. He helped us enjoy each other as people and feel rewarded in doing even the most trivial tasks. In short, he was a personable colleague and an intellectual leader. AAUSC will miss him.

Sally Sieloff Magnan
AAUSC Series Editor

Introduction

Benjamin Rifkin

University of Wisconsin-Madison and Russian School of Middlebury College

The notion of mentoring is as old a concept as parenthood. Indeed, in the academy today, one often hears references to younger scholars as the "children" of an older scholar. While this metaphor is an old and established one in the academy, the notion of consciously preparing to take on a mentoring role and, more importantly, the concept of conducting research on mentoring roles are more recent. As more and more institutions look to teaching assistants, lecturers, and part-time or adjunct faculty to teach language courses, the language program director's (LPD's) role as a mentor grows in importance. While many of us take on such responsibilities enthusiastically and with the best of intentions, not all of us have been prepared to do so. Many language program directors rely on the model of their own mentoring relationship with a professor in their graduate institutions, a professor who may or may not have been a language program director. While these models may be good ones, they cannot provide the full range of experience upon which we must draw as we mentor our own teaching assistants, lecturers, and part-time and adjunct faculty. This volume, the eleventh in the AAUSC Series in Language Program Direction, is designed to help fill that gap. Its focus grows out of essays previously published in this very series: Cynthia A. Fox, "Toward a Revised Model of TA Training," Julie Herschensohn, "TA Development: A Case Study," and Benjamin Rifkin, "Breaking Out of the Vicious Circle," all in the 1992 AAUSC volume edited by Joel C. Walz; Katherine Arens, "Applied Scholarship in Foreign Languages: A Program of Study in Professional Development," Lynn Carbon Gorrell and Jorge Cubillos, "TA Programs: The Fit between Foreign Language Teacher Preparation and Institutional Needs," and Cathy Pons, "TA Supervision: Are We Preparing a Future Professoriate," all in the 1993 volume edited by David P. Benseler; and Linda M. von Hoene, "Subjects-in-Process: Revisioning TA Development through Psychoanalytic, Feminist, and Postcolonial Theory," Celeste Kinginger, "Toward a Reflective Practice of TA Education," and Peter C. Patrikis, "The Foreign Language Problem: The Governance of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning," all in the

1995 volume edited by Claire Kramsch. Clearly, the issues of teaching our graduate students to teach and promoting their professional development in ways and manners beyond the confines and constraints of a single methods course or teaching practicum are of central importance to the membership of the AAUSC, as reflected in these and other essays of our series in language program direction. These questions are a topic of discussion not only on these pages, but also on the pages of journals and annual volumes of other organizations dedicated to foreign language teaching, including those produced by the MLA (e.g., Michaels 1999) and in general academic publications, such as *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (e.g., Kaye 2000). The current volume is designed to focus closely on a subset of these issues—the history of mentoring, the process of mentoring, and the ways of mentoring—and addresses them in the context of foreign language programs with language program directors charged with the task of mentoring graduate students, lecturers, part-time, and adjunct faculty who teach under their supervision.

First, we must consider the goals for mentoring teaching assistants, lecturers, and part-time or adjunct faculty. Certainly, facilitating the teachers' development as teachers will always remain a top priority. Coupled with this, however, is the goal of helping instructors teaching in our programs find tenure-track employment since, in many cases, this is the top priority for the instructors with whom we are working. This second goal, second for the language program directors but primary for many of the instructors with whom we work, involves a much broader range of issues for the LPD mentor. In the context of these two goals, it is possible to identify three major areas in which the mentoring process can unfold: mentoring instructors to conduct research in foreign language education and related disciplines (including investigations in applied linguistics and second language acquisition) as well as in the disciplines of literary and cultural studies and theoretical or historical linguistics; mentoring instructors in their classroom teaching and curricular development; mentoring instructors to take on more and more varied service roles in the academic community and beyond. It is, of course, no surprise that these mentoring areas correspond rather neatly to the three pillars on which tenure cases rest: research, teaching, and service.

Schoenfeld and Magnan (1992) describe approximately 40 different faculty duties or responsibilities, including activities related to literary and/or linguistic research and teaching and curricular development. More importantly for this essay, Schoenfeld and Magnan also emphasize the importance of service in the academic's career. They discuss several different kinds of activities which successful academics undertake, including staying on top of study abroad programs, employment trends, and career opportunities; advising students; learning to work with a diverse range of learners (including learners of different racial and ethnic backgrounds and learners of different sexual orientations); referring students for counselling; supervising dissertations; writing recommendations; performing departmental, institutional, professional, and community service; and participating in outreach programs to high schools and other community groups. Some of the instructors mentored by LPDs may not need or want mentoring for some of these activities, or they may not need or want mentoring from LPDs in some of these areas since other professors in the language department may be able to provide this mentoring; other instructors may need our help in many of the areas identified by Schoenfeld and Magnan.

Mentoring teaching assistants, lecturers, and part-time and adjunct faculty in some contexts may mean helping them conduct research and publish in the area of foreign language education. In a survey of four journals in the foreign language field (*Foreign Language Annals*, *Journal of the Association of Teachers of Japanese*, *Slavic and East European Journal*, *Die Unterrichtspraxis*), 7–10% of the articles published in the last ten years were authored or co-authored by individuals identified as graduate students (data for other prominent foreign language journals, such as *French Review*, *Hispania*, or *The Modern Language Journal*, were not available because the journals do not record the status of their contributing authors). LPDs who take on a mentoring role must ask themselves if promoting their protégés' research and publication record, at least in the area of foreign language pedagogy, is one of their goals, and if so, how best to go about helping them make their debut on the pages of professional journals. Brandt (1989), Kagan (1989) Sharan and Sharan (1989), Slavin (1989/1990), and Gebhard (1999) all describe frameworks for cooperative investigations that could serve as a means for LPDs to work together with instructors teaching in their programs to identify areas of mutual interest and concern, design research proposals, and implement an "action research plan" that could lead not only to solutions for genuine teaching problems, but also to a publishable paper in the discipline of foreign language education.

The question of mentoring teaching, rather than mentoring research or service, is the focus of this volume. Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) have written at great length about various approaches to teacher supervision, identifying a "developmental approach" in which mentors, assumed to be master teachers, guide their apprentices along a known path to a desired goal, i.e., the solutions to classroom problems that correspond to the mentors' sense of what is desirable in the context of their institution, language program, or beliefs about language learning. Gebhard and Opprandy contrast "developmental" mentoring with "exploratory" mentoring, in which mentors help apprentices identify problems and investigate solutions without any preconceived notions regarding the best or most desirable outcomes.

The authors of this volume take up the question of mentoring in many different contexts. First, H. Jay Siskin, with Jim Davis, examines mentoring, especially in the foreign languages, from historical, theoretical, and pragmatic perspectives. The authors explore different definitions of the mentor-mentee relationship in a broad range of contexts and different roles and functions taken on by each partner in the relationship. Next, Siskin and Davis examine the history of the mentor-mentee relationship in the context of foreign language teacher training, education, and supervision, considering the various pleas, plaints, and laments by various parties over the course of the last 45 years concerning the state of graduate student teacher preparation in the foreign languages. They then consider obstacles to mentoring in the context of foreign language programs and propose suggestions for future research on mentoring in the foreign languages.

In the next chapter, Elizabeth Guthrie considers disciplinary tensions in the mentoring of foreign language teaching assistants. She considers the perception by some that the focus on "drills and skills" in TA training detracts from "content" (literature or linguistics) training. Guthrie suggests ways that TAs can be mentored to bridge the gap between language and literature in the language classroom. She examines the nature of the multi-section foreign language course, a structure which meets the institution's needs for cost-efficient teaching, but one that may be at the root of disciplinary tensions in the mentoring of graduate student teaching assistants.

Elizabeth Bernhardt looks at the question of mentoring experienced or "veteran" instructors in a program also staffed with younger teachers who have had substantial training in applied linguistics or second language acquisition. She explores the "potentially explosive and divisive teaching staff configuration" of the two groups on either side of a generational divide, one with significant teaching experience (and good rapport with students), the other with more contemporary research preparation. Bernhardt also examines differences in these two groups' views of language study: the older teachers, she argues, often believe that language study is the way to gain access to the canonical literary texts and therefore focus on reading skills, while the younger teachers see formal language instruction as the beginning of a life-long learning process for students who have a variety of purposes for language use, not just the reading of literature.

Betty Lou Leaver and Rebecca Oxford discuss style as a critical variable in the mentoring process, considering personality characteristics of mentor and mentee and steps the mentor can take to accomodate the individual mentee's style. They begin by defining the mentoring relationship and then propose that one of the most important issues in mentoring is the mentor's need to provide equal, not identical, treatment to each of the instructors whom she or he mentors. This point is critical for the rest of the argument these authors make, as they discuss a variety of personality and character trait inventories (e.g., Myers-Briggs or Keirsey's Temperament Sorter). Next, Leaver and Oxford consider the possibility of different combinations of personality traits in each partner of the mentor-mentee relationship and identify potential problems that could arise in each context, as well as possible solutions. For instance, they note that extroverted mentors can exhaust introverted mentees by overstimulating them with personal interaction. The large matrix of personality variables makes the potential relationship between mentor and mentee quite complex, but Leaver and Oxford provide a road map to help mentors identify which strategy to take with which kind of mentee.

Sangeeta Dhawan takes up the question of reflective practice in the following chapter. She uses the metaphor of a series of mirrors in which teachers can consider their own practice and brings to our attention a case study of a graduate student teaching assistant who took on an action research project exploring the use of realia. In the examination of this case study, Dhawan considers the different roles of the TA supervisor: the methods professor, the teaching mentor, and the research partner. In many instances, the conflation of these roles is the source of significant problems the language program director must solve in his or her day-to-day interactions with graduate student teaching assistants.

Cynthia Chalupa and Anne Lair consider how best to mentor international teaching assistants, exploring three fundamental problems: language, acculturation, and university policies. They discuss issues related to language in the context of foreign-born teaching assistants who teach their native language to anglophones in an American university and their use of English in the classroom. Next, they examine the question of acculturation and the problems which arise in the disjuncture between the realities of American university life and student behavior patterns and the realities and patterns typical of the international teaching assistants' native cultures. Third, Chalupa and Lair consider problems which may arise in the area of university policies, such as those on sexual harrassment or academic misconduct, which may be different from those in the international teaching assistants' native culture. Finally, the authors propose a workshop in which these problem areas can be addressed so that international foreign language teaching assistants can be best prepared to take on the responsibilities of language teaching in an American university.

In the next chapter, John Klapper discusses an exciting new mentoring program in the United Kingdom. After discussing the history of reflective practice in mentoring teachers, Klapper considers action research and top-down approaches to teacher training and compares the different concerns held by experienced and novice teachers. He then describes a program designed to accommodate teachers and their concerns in different stages of their careers.

Next, Richard Robin examines the question of part-time employment, an issue of increasing urgency in the foreign language field, with a case study of Russian in the Washington, DC area. He provides professional profiles and charts comparing compensation and training for part-time instructors of Russian in the Washington, DC area before considering student perceptions and performance outcomes as part of the larger picture of staffing problems. Ultimately, he proposes some solutions to the "staffing crisis," one that plagues small- and mid-sized universities without graduate programs in the foreign languages.

In the volume's final chapter, Patricia R. Chaput considers the question of the successful job candidate's profile and how we, as language program directors, can mentor our instructors so that they can be identified as the ideal candidate for an appropriate position. Chaput notes that "efforts to think more seriously about the preparation of Ph.D.s who will teach language often collide with the survival interests of a department's literature faculty." She goes on to argue that the question "what should we be looking for" when hiring a language instructor should be construed to mean "what should we be asking for," not "what should we settle for." Chaput suggests that the field should raise expectations and provide opportunities for graduate student teaching assistants to acquire a knowledge base and skill base comparable to those they acquire in the area of literary scholarship.

All the chapters of this volume contribute to the on-going discussion of what we, as language program directors, should do to mentor the instructors who work under our supervision. Whether we take developmental or exploratory approaches (as described by Gebhard and Oprandy [1999]) or a combination of these and other approaches, we must recognize that we hold the immediate future of the foreign language field in our hands. Therefore, we must do the best we can to provide for the field's long-term needs while also meeting the short-term needs of our institutions' own policies and constraints. The puzzle is even more complicated, of course, as we try to accomodate the short-term and long-term needs and interests of the undergraduate students in our language programs and the interests of our colleagues in literature or linguistics, as well as our own short-term and long-term needs for professional development and advancement. It is, however, in the accomodation of the competing interests of all these constituents that we find the most exciting challenges of language program direction. For all these reasons, it is no surprise that the AAUSC has begun a mentoring program, matching beginning language program directors with more experienced veterans in the field. If you are interested in joining this program, either as a mentor or as a mentee, please contact one of the officers or language section heads of the AAUSC.

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Historical, Theoretical, and Pragmatic Perspectives on Mentoring

H. Jay Siskin
Cabrillo College

with Jim Davis
University of Arkansas–Fayetteville

The classically-minded reader will recall that Mentor was the name of the Ithacan noble whose identity Athena assumed in order to act as a counselor to Ulysses's son Telemachus in Homer's *Odyssey*. The character of Mentor was given more prominence in Fénelon's *Les Aventures de Télémaque* (1699),[1] and from there, gained currency in French and English as a generic noun signifying an experienced and trusted guide. The *Oxford English Dictionary* lists citations with this meaning beginning in 1750.

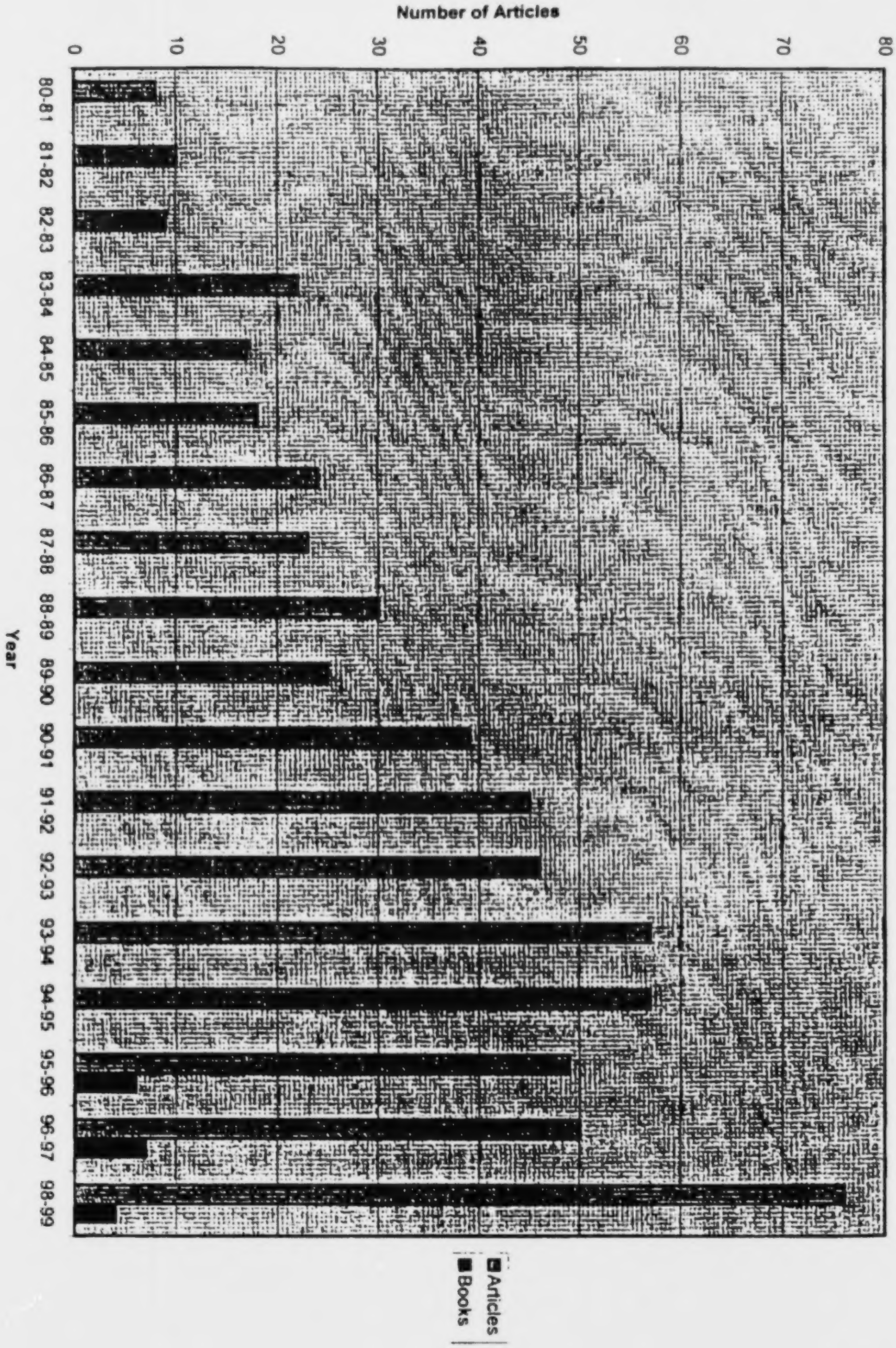
A check of the *Education Index* from the years 1935–1999 reveals the first appearance of the descriptor "mentoring" in 1980, with eight entries listed. The number of articles and books on mentoring has steadily increased, as the following chart illustrates.

A closer examination of these entries reveals that few deal specifically with mentoring in the context of the teaching of foreign languages and literatures (FL). This chapter's goal, then, is to examine current models of mentoring, and to relate them to issues that are specific to our discipline. We will then make recommendations for a research/action agenda.

Review of the Literature

Luna and Cullen (1995) attributed the introduction of the concept of mentoring in the educational literature to the research of Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978). These investigators undertook a longitudinal study of the importance of the mentoring relationship in the adulthood of young men, using biographic methods that built on the works of Freud, Erikson, and Jung.

Luna and Cullen summarized four broad conceptualizations of academic mentoring:



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- "Mentoring is a process by which persons of superior rank, special achievements, and prestige instruct, counsel, guide, and facilitate the intellectual and/or career development of persons identified as protégées" (Blackwell 1989, p. 9).
- Mentoring in education is the socialization of faculty members learning the rules of academe (Carter 1982).
- "[Mentoring] involves a special kind of socialization for leadership roles . . . . The process is one of extending and expanding personal efficacy and influence" (Moore 1982, p. 28).
- Mentoring involves colleagues who are role models, consultants/advisers, and sponsors for peers (Schmidt and Wolfe 1980).

Hawkey (1997) provided a wide-ranging review of the literature on mentoring, focusing on the interactions between mentor and student teacher. She identified four approaches: an organizational approach that examines the roles and responsibilities of the different personnel involved in teacher training; a functional approach that analyses the developmental stages that novice teachers experience and assigns corresponding roles for the mentor; an interpersonal approach that emphasizes interactional over professional aspects of learning to teach; and a "constructivist"[2] approach that "argues that mentors do more than respond to the needs of their mentees; they bring their own perspectives, values, and assumptions to the mentoring task, which influence the type of mentoring they develop" (p. 326). She concluded that each framework is of limited use because none can address the idiosyncratic nature of mentoring and learning to teach, where the complex play of cognitive, affective, and interpersonal factors resists typological categorization. We will return to this observation in our discussion below.

Specifically addressing the American university context, Nyquist and Wulff (1996) postulated a developmental approach to supervision, based on the level and background of the teaching assistant (TA). Mentoring, in their view, is a relationship between peers, and develops only after teaching assistants have had considerable experience. With beginning graduate students, or "senior learners," i.e., those that have been selected based on "their demonstrated competence as learners rather than as teachers or researchers" (p. 5), the supervisor will assume a managerial approach. This role requires setting standards, appointing, motivating, coordinating, monitoring, and possibly dismissing.

At a second level, graduate students with more experience may be considered "colleagues in training," who are at a discovery phase.

They are ready for innovation, to formulate and test hypotheses. The supervisor will then take on the role of model, demonstrating behaviors and attitudes about the instructional or research process. This stage is more collaborative. The supervisor shares reflections and decision making with the teaching assistant, and encourages reflective practice and questioning.

At a final stage, the supervisor may become the mentor of the teaching assistant, with more peer-like interaction. The mentoring relationship gives TAs the opportunity "to learn collegial roles, to ask questions, seek information, express concerns, or suggest ideas in ways that they would not when working with you primarily as a manager or model" (p. 14). To foster this relationship, the authors emphasized the need to collaborate, to provide opportunities for dialogue, and to view the TAs as decision makers.

Nyquist and Wulff operationalized this mentor relationship in the following chart:

Relative Emphasis on Supervisor's Role	"You make the decision. Let me know if I can be of help to you. I'm interested in the outcome."
Teaching Assignments for TAs	Design and teach a basic course; assist with an advanced course
Research Assignments for RAs	Conduct research project using supervisor as a resource
Teacher Training Activity for TAs	Reflective practicum over curricular and pedagogical development and potential approaches to students
Function of Evaluation	Provide feedback as a colleague on developing a personal teaching or research style and approach.

(Nyquist and Wulffe 1996, p. 27)

Boyle and Boice (1998) likewise explored mentoring within the context of the American university system. Based on two studies performed with new faculty and graduate teaching assistants, they established a model for systematic mentoring, founded on three components: planning, structure, and assessment. Adequate planning facilitated high involvement, a critical factor for the program's success. Moreover, early recruitment ensured that mentoring meetings would become a priority in the participants' routine, such that other events that would be planned around the meetings, rather than the opposite.

The investigators found that three structural elements were crucial for sustained systematic mentoring: weekly mentor-mentee meetings, regular follow-up by program directors, and periodic group meetings.

Finally, they asserted that assessment should include three levels of data: program involvement data; "bonding" data[3]—information regarding the compatibility and bonding of mentoring pairs; and context data, using the participants' records of their mentoring meetings.

This review of the educational literature on mentoring may leave the reader more confused than enlightened. Malderez (1999) remarks on "a bewildering range of interpretations of the term. Most assume a one-to-one relationship between mentor and mentee, the 'student'-professional in the relationship, but even these often describe differing roles and functions for the mentor" (p. 4). She reproduces the following chart in an attempt to classify the divergent roles and functions:

Role	**Functions**
1. Model	—to inspire —to demonstrate
2. "Acculturator"	—to show mentee the ropes —to help mentee get used to the particular professional culture
3. Sponsor	—to "open doors" —to introduce mentee to the "right people" —to use their power (ability to make things happen) in the service of the mentee
4. Support	—to be there —to provide safe opportunities for the mentee to let off steam/release emotions —to act as a sounding board—for cathartic reasons
5. Educator	—to act as a sounding board—for articulation of ideas —to consciously create appropriate opportunities for the mentee —to achieve professional learning objectives

(Malderez 1999, p. 4)

Luna and Cullen likewise point out the absence of "a widely accepted operational definition of academic mentoring" (1995, p. 6). The single constant appears to be a one-to-one relationship between mentor and mentee, a relationship that fosters individual growth (cf. Luna and Cullen 1995, p. 5).

Mentoring in the Foreign Language Context

As mentioned above, research on TA training in foreign language departments has not addressed mentoring in a sustained, theoretical discussion.[4] On the other hand, the profession has a long history of concern for the supervision of teaching assistants. We will now examine this concern in the context of the mentoring frameworks outlined above.

A search of the literature reveals a call for action as early as 1955, when an MLA Conference Report bemoaned the paucity of teaching experience and training possessed by the majority of M.A. and Ph.D. candidates. In addition to recommending additional experience, the report favored increased coursework in methodology, linguistics, and language. It further proposed the creation of a "certificate for college teaching" that would document training and level of language mastery.

In 1963, the MLA, supported by the Carnegie Corporation, polled Ph.D.-granting departments in foreign language with regard to their TA-training practices. Fifty-two departments at thirty-nine universities were represented in the survey, with the following results reported:

> From the questionnaires, it is clear that the average department a) offers no course in the art of teaching, b) makes no arrangements for class visiting, and c) provides no effective supervision. Some chairmen disclaimed any concern about teaching training. In some departments, there were teachers in charge of lower-division language teaching, [*sic*] who felt they had, or ought to have had, responsibility for supervision, but they could not assume it as an extra burden in an already heavy schedule (MacAllister 1966, p. 401).

MacAllister reported that in the "few" departments that allowed for supervision of teaching assistants, a faculty member was given teaching credit for this duty: "He usually holds a pre-term briefing session, meets with the assistants periodically, and sets up a schedule of visits to their classes, followed by conferences" (p. 31). This procedure was deemed "the best current practice, short of giving a regular methods course for graduate students and assistants" (p. 31).

This situation had changed somewhat by 1970, the year Hagiwara undertook a survey of TA training and supervision on behalf of the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages. He found that out of 157 replies (no response rate noted), 38% of departments conducted preservice orientations and 24.8% required methods training (cited in Ervin and Muyskens 1982). Both he and Berwald (1976, also cited in

Ervin and Muyskens 1982)[5] called for further efforts in TA training and supervision.

In 1979, Nerenz, Herron, and Knop likewise surveyed graduate foreign language departments, sampling ninety universities, with a response rate of 57%. Of these institutions, 91% had some form of required TA training.

This initial survey was complemented by another one that Nerenz, Herron, and Knop (1979) administered to teaching assistants and former graduate students in French at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. This 1978 questionnaire sought to determine the relative value of various components of the TA-training program. With a 46% and 36% response rate respectively, the two groups of respondents evaluated as the most effective supervisory techniques:

1. discussions of the observed session with a professor or an experienced teaching assistant after self-critiquing;
2. discussion of the observed session with a professor;
3. written comments on the observed session from the professor;
4. discussion of the observed session with an experienced teaching assistant (p. 886).

Among the recommendations that followed the discussion of her 1979 survey on TA training and evaluation, Schulz advised that "supervisor should be given sufficient released time from teaching duties so that he or she can make frequent classroom observations and be available for individual consultations as needed" (1980, p. 6). The remainder of Schulz's remarks confused supervision and evaluation, addressing issues of timing and format.

In a 1983 survey of 326 institutions, Di Pietro, Lantolf, and LaBarca summarized the ten components commonly found in TA training programs, albeit in different configurations: (1) pre-service orientation; (2) college methods course; (3) high school methods course; (4) pre-service workshop; (5) demonstration classes by a supervisor; (6) weekly group meetings; (7) peer-teaching demonstrations; (8) visitations by a supervisor; (9) supervisor-conference with the TA; (10) peer visitations (1983, p. 368).

Hagiwara's historical assessment on the "state of the art" in TA training (1976) grouped the literature into three categories: descriptive, pedagogical, and prescriptive:

> The articles the writer came across were of three basic types: descrip-

> tions of successful programs, containing concrete details and, although designed for particular departments, offering features worthy of imitation by others; descriptions of courses in applied linguistics, methodology, or a single phase of teacher training such as interaction analysis and micro-teaching; various criteria, guidelines, and resolutions issued by professional organizations and conferences, such as MLA, ADFL, AATF, and the Northeast Conference, all decrying a lack of systematic training for college-level teaching and advocating the establishment of sound "TA training" (p. 7).

Fast-forwarding to the present, Olsen made a similar plea:

> One may reasonably presume that quite a few excellent training programs for teaching assistants already exist. However, ten unsystematic inquiries confirmed Showalter's[6] observation that pedagogical training for our teaching assistants varies greatly from casual and almost non-existent to comprehensive. I would like to appeal to ACTFL—or another umbrella organization in our disciplines—to solicit descriptions of the pedagogical support for all junior teachers in graduate departments, publish this information, and initiate a debate that might lead to some recommended and broadly adopted standards (1998, p. 503).[7]

Rava's 1991 study was the first to outline a systematic approach to mentoring in the context of a foreign language department. Her three-phase model called for an initial meeting with a senior professor before the beginning of the semester. During this session, "the mentor must be ready to spell out course objectives and the methods used to devise them and then must provide the TA either with a course syllabus and reading list or with the parameters for designing such a syllabus. The professor thus explains the process of developing a semester's program and of choosing materials. The mentor must also address questions of TA responsibility and freedom in curriculum development evaluation, and teaching methods" (p. 52).

During a follow-up meeting with the senior professor, "the TA [is given] a chance to present his or her part of the course to the mentor" (p. 52). This meeting is paired with the first as the follow-up aspect of phase one.

Rava proposed that the second phase of the process should involve class visits, with professor and TA observing each other's courses. Again, the relationship between the mentor and mentee is lopsided, with the senior professor serving in more of an evaluative capacity: "TAs will have become accustomed to such visits and will know how to observe and how to use an observer's comments and suggestions for self-improvement" (p. 52).

During the third phase, the focus would be on grading. The professor "explains his or her methods of evaluation as a model for the teaching assistant" (p. 52).

Finally, the mentor and mentee should evaluate their endeavors over the course of the semester, and write a joint report to the chair.

At least five conclusions may be drawn from this brief review of TA training in FL departments:

1. Although mentoring might be implicit in the supervisory models, it is not a strongly delineated concept and is never defined in a rigorous fashion;
2. Despite the distinction made by some writers between novice and experienced TAs and their respective needs, no model is based on a developmental scheme, where the power differential between supervisor and TA is reduced to a more collegial, peer-like relationship;
3. Supervisory models favor coursework, informational meetings, classroom observations, and follow-up conferences;
4. There remains a perception that there should be more and better TA programs and national standards;
5. Surveys, reflection pieces, the dissemination of models, and the recommendations of professional organizations seem to have had little impact on the perceived quantity and quality of TA-training programs.

Obstacles to Mentoring

As we have illustrated above, the surveys and reports on TA training are noteworthy for their alarmism. The overall impression is one of crisis: future college professors are not being prepared for teaching; undergraduates are being incompetently taught by poorly-prepared TAs. Why should this be the case? A number of answers are forthcoming, and while some of the documents cited may be familiar to our readers, we feel this review of departmental culture is necessary to situate our final comments. In this section, then, we explore institutional barriers to good pedagogical mentoring, specifically (a) the anti-teaching bias prevalent in the professional context, particularly as it influences the culture of the individual department and (b) the dichotomy between TA perceptions and faculty perceptions of TA effectiveness. A further barrier, the lack of a useful knowledge base on mentoring, is taken up in our final discussion.

"Any junior scholar who comes in and pays attention to teaching at the expense of research and publishing ain't going to get tenure" (Mooney 1990, p. 1A). This remark made at the 1990 meeting of the American Association for Higher Education expresses in the most straightforward manner the present day climate of the academy. The authors agree with Boyle and Boice (1998) that most faculty holding prestigious university positions did so by focusing the greatest part of their energy upon their research agendas rather than upon teaching. Graduate programs, desirous of placing their graduates in the best jobs and at the same time painfully aware of the "catastrophically depressed" job market (Kernan 1992, p. 24), perpetuate this bias. While Stanford and Harvard have recently decided to reward departments and individual faculty for an emphasis on undergraduate teaching (Delbanco 1999, p. 38), these measures are so extraordinary as to be the proverbial exceptions that prove the rule.

It is not surprising, then, that even in those institutions that have TA-training programs in place, many students express the desire to return to their own research as soon as possible, having been "already time-pressured and well socialized by the doctoral-granting university" (Boyle and Boice 1998, p. 160). Thus, attempts to improve teaching via mentoring may be hampered by the general impression that time spent on improving teaching is time taken away from writing books and articles.

An article by Jones (1993) gives us additional insight into this situation. Jones surveyed teaching assistants in the psychology department of "a university whose campus-wide TA training program has been lauded as an ideal model" (p. 149). Although the low response rate (20%; N=18) precludes any broadly-applicable conclusions, Jones' analysis is nonetheless provocative: "The results of this survey show that TAs view their training program quite differently than program directors do. Even programs that have been praised in national reviews, as the campus-wide portion of this study has, are perceived by TAs as merely neutral in effectiveness. According to these TAs, encouragement to participate in training does not exist, topics of program discussions are quickly forgotten, and faculty feedback remains dreadfully weak" (p. 152).

Even if this study lacks statistical validity, it is easy to imagine—or identify—a completely "ghettoized" foreign language TA training program, directed by a single pedagogue, whose areas of professional specialization are shared by few, scorned by many as intellectually inferior, and do not rank high in the departmental/university reward system. It is no wonder, then, that students receive implicit or explicit messages that discourage interest in training, resulting in discussions that "are quickly forgotten."

Bernhardt (1998) reinforces this point, suggesting that the history of foreign language instruction in the United States, in particular its marginalization, may influence the self-perception of the FL professoriate, as well as apprentice professors (TAs). This marginalization, and the struggle for FL to be considered a legitimate discipline, may well have resulted in seemingly conflicting goals, such as the ability to communicate versus knowledge of high culture (pp. 54–56).

This situation also explains why the mere existence of a TA training program engenders complacency. By setting up and running a training program, the language program director (LPD) has satisfied his/her service or teaching obligations, but not his/her research agenda, by which s/he will be judged. There is little incentive to reflect or innovate. By the same token, the remaining departmental colleagues are satisfied (and often relieved) that teacher training "is taken care of." Clearly, these circumstances are not auspicious for the development of a mentoring program—and yet may explain why any effort to move in a new direction is hailed as an exemplary model worthy of imitation.

Another factor that may inhibit further training initiatives—such as mentoring—is the disparity between TA and faculty perceptions of teaching. Brown-Wright, Dubick and Newman examined this disparity in a questionnaire study of TAs and faculty (1997) which revealed that TAs had a higher opinion of their performance than the opinion held by faculty members of their own performance. Some TAs have argued that their generally superior performance on student evaluations also attests to their competence. Hence, a resistance to continued training.

Furthermore, Bashford (1996) noted that graduate students are much more likely to accept critical comments on their research than they are to accept evaluation of their teaching. What goes on between a TA and his/her students is more private and "inviolable" than what is, for instance, written on literary theory by the same person.

These observations are supported by Feiman-Nemser and Floden's 1996 study on the cultures of teaching, in which they discussed the "hands-off" norms that are prevalent in teacher-teacher interaction. Noting that teachers typically work in isolation, they quoted Lortie (1975) who described the ideal colleague "as someone willing to help, but never pushy. A norm against asking for help in any area of serious difficulty prevails because such a request would suggest a failing on the part of the teacher requesting assistance. A complementary norm discourages teachers from telling a peer to do something different" (Feiman-Nemser and Floden 1996, p. 509). Although the relationship between teaching assistant and supervisor involves a different status/power hierarchy than that described by the authors, the private nature of the teaching task, supported by the constructs of teacher authority and academic freedom, no doubt explains why TAs are less receptive to critical feedback on teaching. For true mentoring to occur, it will probably be necessary to develop a more collaborative pedagogical discourse.

Directions for Future Research

It may be safely stated that most foreign language professionals intuitively feel that mentoring is a "good thing." Yet, a return to Table 1 leads us to reflect again upon the mentoring construct within the system of recognition and rewards in the academy. Are we witnessing a "bandwagon" effect, where "reformers" preach the latest trend and subsequently move on when the term is no longer "profitable," i.e., when the term no longer signifies innovation, generates publications, and forwards careers? Pennycook (1989) cautions us that academic knowledge is not innocent: "The knowledge produced in the central academic institutions is legitimated through a series of political relationships that privileges it over other possible forms of knowledge" (p. 596).

It is perhaps with these issues in mind that Feiman-Nemser (1996) issued this call for caution:

> Enthusiasm for mentoring has not been matched by clarity about the purposes of mentoring. Nor have claims about mentoring been subjected to rigorous empirical scrutiny. The education community understands that mentors have a positive affect [*sic*] on teacher retention, but that leaves open the question of what mentors should do, what they actually do, and what novices learn as a result (p. 3).

Likewise, Hawkey greeted the literature on mentoring with enthusiasm and alarm. She notes that much of the writing is either "descriptive or declarative with little analysis or theoretical underpinning to the study and practice of mentoring" (1997, p. 325).

Clearly, then, the greatest need in the field is empirical research. Feiman-Nemser identified four areas of concern: (1) the effects of mentoring on teaching and teacher retention; (2) factors that enhance the outcome of mentor–mentee relationships; (3) structures and resources that facilitate the mentoring dyad; and (4) the place of mentoring in professional development programs and accountability checks (1996, p. 4).

In addition, Feiman-Nemser outlined "thorny issues of policy and practice" that need clarification or resolution in order for mentoring to remain viable. Should mentors assist *and* assess? It is argued that "novices are more likely to share problems and ask for help if mentors do not evaluate them" (p. 4). Nevertheless, mentors may be asked to assess for reasons of accountability or professionalism. For Feiman-Nemser, the issue is not straightforward: an either-or solution disadvantages one party in the collaboration.

A further issue is the extent to which the mentor relationship should be formalized within a program. Since the affective bond between mentor and mentee determines to a great degree the efficacy of the relationship, should mentors be chosen or assigned? Citing Tauer (1995), Feiman-Nemser suggests that "program developers may be wise to focus on creating optimal conditionals rather than trying to make optimal matches" (p. 4). (See Leaver and Oxford in this volume.)

Another policy question is the amount of release time (if any) that should be provided to mentors. If no release time is provided, the mentee and mentor are led to believe that the institution does not value the mentoring process.

Finally, how and when do mentors learn their craft? Are they professional language program coordinators, or are they chosen on the faulty equation of experience = expertise? Do they have knowledge of clinical supervision, theories of learning and teaching? Are they able to articulate their own beliefs about teaching and learning, or do they adhere to idiosyncratic intuition and insist on rigid models?

Unless these research and policy issues are addressed, the term "mentoring" may well become a buzzword that signifies innovation without substance. Furthermore, if mentoring lacks credible theoretical underpinnings, it will be that much harder to introduce it into TA training programs that present inherent obstacles to innovation.

Notes

1. The following passage from Fénelon's work suggests the expanded role attributed to Mentor:

> N'oubliez pas, mon fils, tous les soins que j'ai pris, pendant votre enfance, pour vous rendre sage et courageux comme votre père. Ne faites rien qui ne soit digne de ses grands exemples et des maximes de vertu que j'ai tâché de vous inspirer. [Don't forget, my son, all the cares I took, during your childhood, to make you wise and brave like your father. Never do anything that isn't worthy of his great examples and the maxims of virtue that I tried to inspire in you. (translated by H. Jay Siskin)] —The goddess Minerva, speaking in the voice of Mentor. Fénelon, *Les Aventures de Télé-*

maque, Book X

2. Our terminology.
3. The authors developed a Mentoring Index protocol to quantify this variable.
4. This will change, of course, with the publication of the present volume. Moreover, a session at the 1999 conference of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, presented by Lalande, was devoted to mentoring. Entitled "Mentoring and the Foreign Language Teaching Professional," it is described in the program as follows:

   > "Is mentoring for you? What are the qualities of a good mentor and a productive mentoring relationship? This presentation addresses these questions, provides information about various mentoring programs, identifies practical and theoretical considerations for effective mentoring, and proposes a classical model of mentoring designed particularly for today's FL teaching professional" (p. 108). ACTFL. 1999. Program. Yonkers: p. 108.

5. Ervin and Muyskens' article discusses a survey of perceived needs among teaching assistants. Among their conclusions, they recommend that a TA training course address specific professional skills. The top four concerns were: methods and techniques; teaching the four skills; teaching conversation (getting the students to speak); making the class interesting. Responses diverged according to the experience and linguistic background of the respondent.
6. Elaine Showalter, the then-president of the Modern Language Association.
7. Note, however, that in addition to the 1955 MLA Report cited in the body of the text, ADFL made the following recommendation:

   > "We, the Executive Committee and member departments of the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, therefore affirm and earnestly recommend to our colleagues (especially in graduate departments) that the foreign language profession now assume the responsibility for determining the criteria for acceptance to practice, as well as the instrumentation by which proficiencies are to be measured. We recommend that every graduate program include not only knowledge of language and literature, but also learning theory, measurement, and teaching experience sufficient to prepare the aspirant professor to teach well at all levels that are likely to be required of him or her upon appointment to a full-time position."

   Hagiwara also alludes to other calls for accountability issued by the Northeast Conference and the AATF.

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New Paradigms, Old Practices: Disciplinary Tensions in TA Training

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When former MLA president Elaine Marks (1993) decried the quality of TA preparation in foreign languages, she echoed a dissatisfaction that many of us have heard or perhaps even voiced. She suggested that the training of graduate students for teaching may have "developed in unfortunate ways, substituting methodology for linguistic, literary, and cultural content and drills and skills for the kind of understanding that might come from a greater awareness of the complexities of transreferential relations, the affective and intellectual dimensions of language learning, and the pleasures of wordplay" (p. 3). Her criticism, however discouraging it may be to those of us who direct language programs and train teachers, is not entirely unfounded. The way we train TAs is inextricably bound up in the way we teach foreign languages to undergraduates; and as von Hoene (1995) points out, when "skills" are emphasized in language classes to the exclusion of the broader content issues that language study raises, there is little immediate reason for TAs to see a connection between the critical skills they learn in their graduate studies and the work they do in the classroom. Lacking that connection, TA training risks becoming a matter of techniques, routines, and activities rather than an in-depth study of the potential of the language classroom for transformative education.

But in another sense, Marks' criticism is problematic; for in viewing TA training only in terms of content, she appears to overlook the extent to which current practices of TA training are conditioned by a historical and administrative context that circumscribes the choices and—at least to an extent—orients the priorities of those responsible for the training. Foreign language TA training is, of course, affected by structures and hierarchies at all institutional levels; but it is most

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immediately influenced by the discipline-specific practices of departments of national languages and literatures, practices that are rooted both in the broader history of TA education and in the tension between literary/cultural studies and the teaching of language. The ideological and disciplinary orientations that dominated the field during the time when teaching assistantships became a standard form of financial aid had a great impact on our assumptions about the purposes of language study and teacher training, the role of language teachers, including TAs, and the relationship between language study and other areas of inquiry housed within departments of national languages and literatures. These perspectives were translated into practices that remain in place today, despite important shifts in the fundamental paradigms of language teaching. As we seek to help graduate students achieve a productive integration of their research with their teaching and to bring academic substance to the teaching of languages, the question is not simply one of designing more substantive TA training courses, although this is certainly a crucial task. We must also address the ways in which the formal structures surrounding our work reflect and reproduce longstanding tensions in language teaching—tensions that can only undermine our best efforts to go beyond reductive "skills and drills" in our efforts to build congruent, intellectually-grounded curricula and teacher education programs.

The Development of TA Training in Foreign Languages

The notion that TA training should prepare graduate students for entry into a profession is in fact relatively new. While TAs were part of the American educational scene by the mid nineteenth century, it was the influx of students after World War II that made the system standard practice in American research universities. Universities were quick to see the advantages of offering TA support to attract graduate students and at the same time to hold down the cost of undergraduate instruction, but they were somewhat slower to recognize the need for training and supervision of the TAs' work. By 1970, critics of American education were complaining that the TA system exploited TA labor, increased the time to degree without adding to professional competence, and provided insufficient training and oversight (Chase 1970). At the same time, many undergraduates and parents believed that the quality of undergraduate education was suffering, as professors turned over their teaching obligations to graduate assistants.

Foreign language departments—perhaps because of the need for close articulation within course sequences and among small class sections—were relatively quick to establish TA training programs. A 1966

MLA survey of 52 foreign language departments (MacAllister 1966) revealed that only 40% had some form of TA training, however minimal it might be. By 1978, by contrast, Schulz found that 78% of foreign language, linguistics, and comparative literature departments reported that they provided development programs for TAs. Yet for another decade, scholarly discussion of TA training across disciplines remained limited, and it focused on the inculcation of idealized, discipline-specific teaching behaviors. It was not until the 1990s that broader professional development, aimed at preparing TAs for a career in teaching rather than focusing narrowly on the courses they teach as graduate students, became a major theme in the literature related to TA training (Chism 1998).

In the past decade a number of writers have critiqued the limited agenda of TA training programs in foreign language departments. Azevedo (1990) distinguished between TA "training" (aimed at preparing graduate students for their immediate duties as TAs) and "education" (aimed at preparing them for a broader career in the teaching of language, literature, and culture). Freed and Bernhardt (1992) argue that the training of TAs all too often proceeds in accordance with the "factory model" of education, providing TAs with methods rather than with a theoretical grounding and treating them as technicians rather than as "reflective practitioners." In their survey of 41 institutions, Gorell and Cubillos (1993) found that most of the training programs they studied were aimed primarily towards preparing TAs to fulfill their functions as graduate teaching assistants rather than to make the curricular and pedagogical decisions that would be required of them as professional teachers of language, literature, and culture. They concluded that "institutions are struggling to deal with two apparently divergent goals: institutional necessity (the demands of specific basic language courses) and professional desiderata (the individual needs of the graduate TAs defined in terms of foreign language pedagogy)" (p. 101). Lalande (1990), Barnett and Cook (1992), Rifkin (1992), and Pons (1993) have proposed expanded models of teacher training to educate TAs for a career beyond the immediate needs of their institutions. Kinginger (1995) and von Hoene (1995) argued that TA training programs should integrate a more theoretical component that prepares TAs to exploit the classroom's potential for negotiating cross-cultural difference and dealing with interrelated issues of language, culture, and identity.

Despite our concern for the duration, content, methods, and goals of TA training programs, however, we have devoted little or no attention to the structural framework within which the programs operate. Yet the TA experience—including explicit instruction, classroom experience, interactions with colleagues around issues of pedagogy, the ways in which language teaching is treated and discussed, and the ways in which pedagogical issues enter into or intersect with other domains of graduate study and interactions with other graduate faculty—constitutes an environment where the TA is socialized into a professional culture—or, to use a term proposed by Gee (1990), into a Discourse—of language teaching. Gee defines a Discourse (with a capital "D," distinct from the broader term "discourse") as "a socially accepted association among ways of using language, of thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and of acting that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or 'social network' or to signal (that one is playing) a socially meaningful 'role'" (p. 143). Gee maintains that while instruction and/or conscious learning may facilitate meta-knowledge of a Discourse, Discourses must be acquired through "enculturation (apprenticeship) into social practices through scaffolded and supported interaction with people who have already mastered the Discourse" (p. 147). Gee uses the example of linguistics to demonstrate the importance of this process for people entering an academic discipline:

> In an academic discipline like linguistics, you can overtly teach someone (the content knowledge of the discipline of) *linguistics*, which is a body of facts and theories; however, while knowledge of some significant part of these facts and theories is necessary to being a linguist, you cannot overtly teach anyone *to be* (*to behave like*) *a linguist*, which is a Discourse—you can just let them practice being a linguist (apprentice them) with people who are already in the Discourse. A person could know a great deal about linguistics and still not be (accepted as) a linguist (not able to signal membership in the 'club' by the right type of talk, writing, values, attitudes and behaviors). 'Autodidacts' are precisely people who . . . were trained outside a process of group practice and socialization. They are almost never accepted as 'insiders,' 'members of the club (profession, group)' (p. 147).

Using Gee's framework, the culture of language teaching can be seen as a Discourse into which it is our aim to socialize TAs. In this process, the training course *per se* can be expected to have less impact than the totality of social and institutional practices that comprise the graduate students' experience of what it means to be a teacher of foreign language/literature/culture. It follows that if the TAs' day-to-day experience of the Discourse of language teaching is divergent from the declarative knowledge taught in a training course, the course itself will be continually undermined by the understandings that are acquired from the broader context. This is why it is important to look not only at the content of what we teach graduate teaching assistants about teaching, but also at the context within which they come to experience themselves as teachers.

Educational Ideologies and Disciplinary Divisions

The administrative context of TA training has been shaped in important ways by the ideological and disciplinary currents that prevailed as the TA system and multi-section courses came into widespread practice. Educational practices in the United States have been dominated by nineteenth century Utilitarian ideology (Kinginger 1995; Scollon and Scollon 1995), which places a high value on progress, individuality, rational thought, technology, quantitative measurement, and the production of wealth. In the wake of World War II, these values intersected with the project of language teaching in a particularly critical way. As the American government experienced an increased need for bilingual and multilingual foreign service personnel and diplomats and as American business turned increasingly to overseas markets, language learning came to be seen for the first time as a matter of national interest (Patrikis 1995). Correspondingly, there was an increased insistence on functional skills rather than on knowledge about language or ability to read and interpret literature. It was during this period that the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) swept into immense success in American public education, grounded in behaviorist psychology and structuralist linguistics, and backed by generous allotments of public funding for teacher retraining programs, the production of new teaching materials, etc. The proponents of ALM legitimized their authority by claiming scientific analysis as the basis for understanding—and ultimately teaching—language. This position was necessarily accompanied by the claim that language should be taught by people with training in applied linguistics and psychology rather than by professors of literature or theoretical linguistics, a claim that had been articulated as early as 1914 by Leonard Bloomfield:

> Nearly all of the elementary language-teaching in our colleges is done . . . by doctors of philosophy who have no training and no ambition in this direction, but find their interest and seek their advancement in linguistic or literary teaching and research. . . . As long as this work is inappropriately left to colleges, these institutions should give employment and promotion to teachers who make it their business, and allow literary and linguistic scholars to stick to their last, for they are no more capable of this work than are grammar-school and high-school teachers of conducting graduate seminars (pp. 298–299).

As the emerging field of applied linguistics struggled for a niche in the academic establishment, a further distinction was drawn between the scientists who produce and articulate empirically-grounded theories of learning and teaching, on the one hand, and the teachers who apply those theories in the classroom, on the other. A widely used methods textbook of the time makes this case as follows:

> A glance at the medical profession should be revealing for the scientifically inclined language teacher. The medical doctor knows physiology, anatomy, chemistry, and bacteriology, but in his practice he does not employ any one of these to the exclusion of the others . . . .
>
> Similarly, the language teacher can not ignore the results of linguistics (the scientific study of language), the psychology of human learning, the age and education of the pupils, or the personality and capacity of the individual student.
>
> A scientific approach to language teaching applies the best that is known to each particular class and its students (Lado 1964, p. 8).

The two-way distinction thus established—between language study and the other academic projects of language departments, on the one hand, and between scholars and teachers, on the other—has had enormous impact on the way language study and language teaching are seen and structured in American universities. Empirically-oriented scholarship in applied linguistics, second language acquisition (SLA), and education has vastly expanded our understanding of how languages are learned and has led to far-reaching changes in teaching practice. Additionally, it has created a pool of professionals with expertise applicable to the development of language curricula, the oversight of programs, and the training of future language educators. At the same time, however, it has accentuated the divergence between language teaching and the study of national literatures/cultures (Patrikis 1995). In fact, if the claims of applied linguists and psychologists in the 1950s and early '60s aimed to professionalize language study and legitimize its place alongside the teaching of literature in language departments, they had, if anything, the opposite effect. The institutionalization of language instruction as a self-contained project, separate from the larger aims of language departments and grounded in the empirical study of language and learning, enabled—and continues to enable—the perception that language study is "just" about mastery of linguistic forms. Simultaneously, it cut language *teachers* out of the very community of scholars it attempted to legitimize. Within the community of literary scholars, where empirical data is less valued than a compelling, elegant, and theoretically-grounded argument

(Kramsch 1998), it is not clear that the status of scholars concerned with language study/learning has been enhanced by their empirical orientation.[1] On the other hand, the trivialization of teachers' work and the sharp demarcation between literature and language have certainly not improved the position of anyone teaching language or training language teachers.

In today's foreign language departments, the language-literature division remains institutionalized as what Patrikis calls a "hierarchy of teaching and research" (p. 298), where language and teaching are subordinate to literature and research. Patrikis has argued that the separation of language and literature, along with the hierarchy it supports, has grave consequences for the overall academic quality of language programs and curricula and ultimately for the potential robustness of language departments. The multi-section language program, where one faculty member is solely responsible for a relatively self-contained program that encompasses elementary language instruction and TA education, separating these from all the other activities of an academic department, instantiates and institutionalizes the language-literature split.

The Multi-Section Program

The multi-section program structure, as I have described it, became widespread at about the same time that ALM was the prevailing methodology in language teaching, that undergraduate enrollments were increasing dramatically, and that the availability of TA support for graduate students made possible the rapid growth of graduate programs. In 1966 the Modern Language Association sponsored a conference on the preparation of college teachers of modern foreign languages. In its report (MacAllister 1966), the Conference recommended that elementary foreign language classes adopt a schedule ensuring one contact hour per day and suggested one of two possible arrangements to meet this requirement: "a. autonomous classes or sections usually meeting five days a week with the same instructor; and b. lecture-demonstrations accompanied by drill. In the latter type, the sections meet as a whole three times a week on alternate days under the course director and are then subdivided into small drill groups, also meeting three times a week" (p. 404). The report also calls for language courses to be taught by "skilled and experienced teachers instead of the untrained and inexperienced teaching assistants who, as the MLA questionnaire revealed, do 80% to 90% of this difficult and sensitive teaching without supervision in some of our largest universities" (p. 404).

Comparing these recommendations to multi-section course delivery today, one sees a curious mix of choices. The administrative needs of departments and institutions—i.e., to attract and support promising graduate students—appears to have outweighed the MLA recommendation that language teaching be assigned to experienced faculty. On the other hand, the one-hour-a-day schedule for beginning language instruction did become a dominant format, with the multi-section course providing a framework for consistency among sections and allowing for supervision and training of graduate student instructors. The lecture-discussion format, a common mode of delivery in many disciplines, became the rare exception rather than the rule in foreign languages. Cost may have been a factor in this tendency; but additionally, the multi-section format generates support for graduate students and allows large enrollments without requiring a significant engagement on the part of most faculty.

At a time when language teaching was viewed less as an academic pursuit than as a matter of putting into practice a prescribed methodology, there was little reason for most faculty to see teaching language classes as a valuable use of their time or to doubt that a beginning graduate student, with the minimal training and supervision that one faculty member can provide for a large number of TAs, could perform adequately in a language classroom. There was equally little reason to question the view of language study and literary/cultural scholarship as distinct projects, one hierarchically subordinate to the other. Finally, there was no reason to question whether training TAs to teach in a multi-section course would provide them with an adequate basis for a career in teaching, since at the time TA training was not perceived as preparation for anything more than teaching the department's language classes. From today's perspective, the multi-section course structure continues to meet institutional needs economically by delivering instruction to large numbers of students with minimal faculty. For better or for worse, it also allows the majority of faculty members in a language department to focus on their areas of specialization without the distraction of language instruction. On the other hand, at a time when our understanding of language acquisition and teaching is undergoing significant change and there is an increasing openness to programs that fruitfully integrate linguistic and literary/cultural goals, multi-section courses are relatively resistant to change and perpetuate the language-literature dichotomy, as we shall see.

The resistance of the multi-section course to radical change is largely a function of the complex organization required to set it up and keep it running smoothly. The labor required to coordinate multiple levels of a language program and multiple sections of each level—

including methodological orientation, textbook selection, support materials for TAs, assessment strategies and materials, audio-visual and digital components, etc.—makes it virtually impossible to make major changes in an established program in a short time. This is not to say that innovation is impossible; but the program's underlying goals and assumptions tend to remain unquestioned once a program is in place. This unwieldiness is both reflected in and intensified by the commodification of foreign language instruction in the textbook industry, where publishers compete for the sale of integrated foreign language "packages" that include grammar instruction, workbooks, instructor's manuals, reading texts, writing exercises, culture modules, audio programs, CD-ROM programs, websites, etc. As Ariew (1982) and Kramsch (1988) have pointed out, foreign language textbooks tend to espouse whatever methods and goals are dominant at a given time, avoid potentially controversial topics, and reflect the ideology and cultural assumptions of the consumer culture rather than that of the target culture. As "products of a homogenizing process" (Ariew, p.12), they do not easily lend themselves to adaptation to the needs and goals of specific programs or student populations, nor can they easily be adapted to fit goals, models of learning, or methodologies other than those for which they were developed. However, competition for the lucrative multi-section course market is fierce; and publicity for instructional packages often makes the claim, explicitly or implicitly, that the program is complete enough and well-enough organized to be taught by inexperienced teachers. From this it seems clear that the attractiveness of the multi-section market encourages the production of formulaic textbooks which, in their turn, contribute to the difficulty of innovation at a fundamental level within language programs.

The role of the language program director raises another set of problems with respect to multi-section courses. Without belaboring the issues that others (e.g., Dvorak 1986; Lee and VanPatten 1991; Lalande 1991) have raised concerning the program director's position in a department, I believe it is important to recognize how the construction of this position entrenches the separation of language study from the study of literature and culture and, as a consequence, how it affects the training of TAs. Patrikis distinguishes between coordinator positions that are created "to bring new academic expertise and professional vitality to a department" and those whose purpose is "to relieve the rest of the department of the responsibility of participating in and of being concerned with the language program . . ." (1995, p. 313). The multi-section course format institutionalizes precisely the second of these models by making the language program the sole and permanent responsibility of a single individual who is distinguished from other faculty not only by having a different area of expertise but also by having a different function in the department.

Kramsch (1995) puts her finger on a central dilemma facing language program directors when she points out that despite the expertise for which they are ostensibly hired, their positions are viewed as essentially administrative rather than academic. The language program director is responsible for seeing to it that language programs run smoothly and efficiently, leaving students generally satisfied with their courses and TAs generally satisfied with the training and support they receive. As instructor of record for language classes, the director is fundamentally responsible for any problems, including quality of instruction, workload, grading standards and procedures, and fairness of grading practices. This kind of responsibility for the satisfaction and the performance of others, especially when novice TAs enter the classroom for the first time with no more preparation than a week (or even a single day) of pre-service training, militates precisely for a formulaic approach to teacher training that supplies TAs with a set repertoire of easily taught and easily applied teaching strategies, thus limiting the potential for problems.

The managerial expectations placed on program directors make it difficult for them to maintain an active engagement with the intellectual currents that are important to their colleagues. In the absence of shared scholarly commitments, the distance between language coordinators and their colleagues and between language programs and the broader language/literature curriculum tends to increase. Acknowledging the tension between administrative responsibility and academic pursuits and recognizing the importance of the program director's intellectual life for the overall health and vitality of language programs, Kramsch offers the following advice:

> If program directors want to teach their TAs how to let go of controlling their classes without abdicating their responsibility as educators, they have to model that stance themselves. One way to do that is to be less concerned with controlling the effectiveness and managerial competencies of their TAs, and more interested in their own intellectual growth and well-being (1995, p. xxiii).

Kramsch's point is well taken; but it is also important to recognize the full weight of institutional disincentives facing language program directors who might choose to loosen their control on language programs and TA training in order to invest in their own intellectual development. For it is precisely on the basis of their administrative skill—their ability to keep things running smoothly, to support the TAs and minimize the burden that teaching places on their graduate studies, to deliver instruction to undergraduates efficiently—that they are evaluated for advancement and, in many cases, continued employment. In a survey of 63 language program directors, Ervin (1991) found that just under half had tenure or the equivalent, and few were ladder-rank faculty. When respondents were asked what characteristics they considered important to their on-the-job success, the qualities most commonly cited were rapport with colleagues, professional ethics and discretion, knowledge of teaching methods, teaching ability, and a high degree of fluency in the target language coupled with knowledge of the target culture. Scholarship was not mentioned. Thus, for the great majority of language program directors who do not hold ladder positions, to follow Kramsch's advice is risky business. Their intellectual development is unlikely to bring institutional recognition or reward, while decreased attention to the smooth and efficient functioning of their programs could cost them the approval of their colleagues and students and even jeopardize the tenuous security of their positions.

Emerging Paradigms for Language Study

The structures I have been discussing are supported in part by a perception of language as a definable (even if imperfectly defined) set of behaviors that can be taught as discrete skills or areas of competence. In general, language study has also proceeded on the premise that its primary value lies less in its inherent worth than in its utility as a preparation for other pursuits—travel, career needs, the study of literature, etc. Both of these assumptions have been brought into question as insights from post-colonial theory, feminist theory, and cultural criticism begin to influence our understanding of the project of language study. A growing number of educators today believe that the mission of foreign language education extends beyond performance of language acts and should include reflection upon the ways in which culturally situated discourse systems create and reproduce social as well as individual meanings. While these scholars represent a variety of orientations and perspectives, and while their positions do not dictate methodologies, their insights offer the possibility of fundamentally new ways to conceptualize what we do as language teachers.

Swaffar (1999), for example, defines foreign language study as "a discipline with four subfields (language, literature, linguistics, and culture) that asks the question, How do individuals and groups use words and other sign systems in context to intend, negotiate, and create meanings" (p. 6)? In her view, the goal of language study—at all levels of the curriculum—is "to enable students to do things with words and to recover what has been done with words, socially, historically, politically, and interpersonally" (p. 6). Kramsch (1993a, 1993b, 1995) has argued persuasively that a transformative pedagogy of language requires that we redefine the very borders of foreign language study. She views language study as "initiation into a kind of social practice that is at the boundary of two or more cultures" (1993a, p. 9) and suggests that "teaching language as communication means teaching the way language both reflects and creates the social power relations, mindsets, and worldviews of speakers and writers within specific discourse communities" (1995, p. xxiv). In a similar vein, Kern (1995) offers a reconceptualization of foreign language literacy that goes beyond normative essayist standards and views literacy as a set of socially, historically, and culturally situated discursive practices. As Kern explains:

> From an "active literacy" perspective . . . language learning is not the acquisition of discrete, decontextualized skills, but an apprenticeship in new social practices—an encounter with new values, norms, and world views—partly through exposure to and experience with new literacy practices (p. 78).

Kinginger (1995) has pointed out that socially situated perspectives on language study fly in the face of the assessment-driven and utilitarian values of American education. More to the point for us is that these perspectives also run counter to many of the assumptions that underlie current practices in language study. They assume the inherent value of language study rather than viewing it primarily as a preparation for travel, diplomacy, business, or advanced language/literature study. Additionally, by taking culture as a central concern and viewing language as social practice, they bring language study into closer alignment with the projects of other disciplines and offer language specialists the possibility of closer engagement with colleagues in literature and other related fields (Kramsch 1995). This opens the way not only for productive collaborations in the areas of curriculum and program development, but also for interdisciplinary research that enriches both SLA and literary-cultural studies (Kramsch 1998). Finally, emerging conceptions of language, culture, and literacy are incompatible with a pedagogy that can be reduced to a step-by-step method or a collection of techniques and strategies, as Kramsch points out:

> American educational culture puts a high premium on the management of learning, on methodology, and on procedure. But cultural understanding, unlike discrete points of linguistic knowledge, does not

> develop from well-designed maps and fool-proof instructions that lead the student through the forest of foreign meanings. It thrives on speculation, on successful and unsuccessful attempts to bring isolated facts and events into relation with one another, on multiple perspectives and interpretations, on a sensitivity to ambiguity, and on the search for meaning itself (1988, p. 85).

The kind of teaching that Kramsch is suggesting here is not easily amenable to training in the sense suggested by Azevedo (1990). Overall, it tends to reduce the relative importance of classroom procedures (drills, group activities, conversational exercises, etc.) and to increase the importance of a critical awareness of the complex interrelationships between linguistic performance, social practice, and cultural production. In resisting purely procedural approaches to the teaching of foreign languages, the emerging paradigms also resist the conventional construction of language teachers as technicians and reposition them as scholar-teachers whose mission is not merely to train students in discrete skills but to introduce them to new ways of experiencing language, culture, nationality, and identity. But this shift also complicates the preparation of future faculty within the conventional structures of today's universities.

Implications for TA Training

If "well-designed maps and foolproof instructions" are inadequate for teaching students to understand the cultural resonances and social embeddedness of language, it is equally true that the institutional context of TA training is ill-designed to support a training program informed by the new paradigms. For example, von Hoene has suggested that theoretical perspectives from postcolonialism, feminist studies, psychoanalysis, etc. might usefully "be put in a productive dialogue with [second language acquisition issues usually discussed in TA development] to see where we might rethink and revise current practices" (1995, p. 51). However, the unwieldiness of the multi-section course structure and its resistance to change complicate this task. By engaging our TAs in reading and discussion of multiple perspectives on language and language study in this way, we must (if we practice what we preach) constantly call into question the underpinnings of our own programs. This is incontestably a good thing, but it puts immense pressure on language program directors who have generally invested enormous energy in constructing their programs. It is relatively easy to experiment with changes at a superficial level (a new book, a different approach to writing, the integration of Web-based work or a

CD-ROM, etc.), but fundamental changes in the aims, orientation, and underlying assumptions of a course cannot easily be carried out section by section or as a short-term experiment. It is not surprising that graduate students rarely have the opportunity to participate, for example, in a fundamental reconceptualization of a language course such as that reported by Chaput (1993, 1996) or Byrnes (1999), where TAs were involved with faculty in articulating overall program goals and then designing course content and materials to support them. Within the cumbersome structure of multi-section courses, program directors are caught between the options of teaching only material that supports their curricular choices, teaching multiple perspectives and a flexibility that they are not willing or able to practice in a sustained way, or engaging in the Sisyphean task of constant critique and revision of their complex programs, at an inevitable cost in terms of the time they can invest in intellectual explorations of their own.

Beyond the content of the training course, however, there remains the larger and more critical problem suggested by Gee's work on Discourses—that is, the question of how graduate students are socialized into a professional culture that includes both research and teaching. The culture of foreign language departments is characterized almost universally by the separation of language teaching from the study of national literatures and cultures, with language being at a lower hierarchical position than literature/culture, as revealed by the differentiated structure of the language program and the differentiated status and responsibilities of its director. No matter how seriously a department takes its language program and no matter how well a program director is integrated within the faculty, the distinction between the two spheres of responsibility is clear; and it conveys inescapably to graduate students that the work they do in their courses (research/literature) is of a fundamentally different order from the work they do in the classroom (teaching/language). In this context language study continues to be positioned as "skill training," and the language teacher is constructed as a practitioner rather than a scholar. Thus, the daily experience of graduate students in a department of foreign language is perpetually at odds with the emerging paradigms for language study. Like the linguist in Gee's example, our TAs may be instructed in a way of thinking about language teaching that challenges worn assumptions; but as long as the institutional practices based on those assumptions remain unchanged, the TAs' lived experience will undermine the content of our training.

Clearly, if we are serious about educating TAs for a career in language teaching, we need to go beyond training in methods and techniques. We need to help graduate students discover the interrelatedness of research and teaching and to bring their abilities as scholars of literature and culture—along with a knowledge of contemporary theories of language acquisition and education—to bear on their practice of language teaching. Ultimately, this requires not just an expanded training course, but a significant shift in institutional culture and practices. The most critical aspect of such a shift is bridging the language-literature split as instantiated in the division of labor now practiced, thus working against the interrelated perceptions of language teaching as skill training and of language teachers as practitioners of received knowledge. To accomplish this, departments will need to reconceptualize the organization of the language program, the practice of making a language program director exclusively responsible for it, and the nature of the program director's responsibilities. Language/pedagogy specialists—whether they are hired as program directors or not—must have both the opportunity and the incentive for research and intellectual growth as well as the opportunity to contribute actively to a department beyond the narrow confines of the language program.

At the same time, the expertise of other faculty might fruitfully contribute to both the teaching of language and the training of TAs. We might, for example, experiment with alternatives to the multi-section program, perhaps revisiting the lecture-discussion mode[2] that is commonly employed in other disciplines. A lecture-discussion format might offer greater flexibility than the multi-section model, while allowing a sharing of duties among language/pedagogy specialists and other faculty. This would enable TAs to work with various faculty members over time, giving them the opportunity to see a variety of approaches and perspectives in practice. An experiment along these lines is reported by Braun and Robb (1990), who describe elementary/intermediate courses in French, German, and Spanish taught by two-person teams, each consisting of one regular faculty member and one TA. Taking inspiration from this experiment, one might consider a team-taught structure that draws on both the program director's knowledge of linguistics, pedagogy, and second language acquisition and the expertise of other faculty in literary/cultural analysis.

The integration of scholarship and teaching can also be practiced and modeled through the formal training of TAs. Barnett and Cook (1992) report on a professional development course for graduate students, taught jointly by a language program director and a professor of medieval literature. The course dealt with issues both in teaching and in research, focusing on areas of convergence between the two. The instructors aimed to "present scholarship globally, as research and teaching together, with attention to theory and practice, general and particular, principles and goals, just as any other set of intellectual notions and their applications are properly taught" (p. 90). Thus, students are not only encouraged to see their own work in an integrated way but also are shown an active model of that kind of fruitful integration in the collaborative work of their instructors.

A curriculum revision project reported by Byrnes (1999) takes another approach to bridging the language-literature dichotomy in TA training. Here the language program supervisor teaches the TA methods class, but other faculty take part in TA development in a variety of ways: by participating in reciprocal observations with TAs and other faculty, by serving as mentors to TAs, by serving as level coordinators, and by participating in the ongoing development of new courses and updating of continuing ones. The curriculum project itself is noteworthy in that no distinction is made between "language" and "content" courses; rather, the entire curriculum is envisioned as a content-based course of study that supports students' continued language development across all levels of instruction. TAs thus both witness and participate in a close integration of linguistic, cultural, and literary goals for instruction at all levels. At the same time, they encounter and engage with diverse perspectives on pedagogy through working with a cross-section of faculty members.

Beyond their formal training, of course, TAs encounter a variety of pedagogies in their graduate courses—a fact Marks (1993) cites as a counterweight to what she views as the triviality of TA methods courses. But whether or not Marks is correct in assuming that the quality of teaching in graduate courses is reliably superior to that of elementary language classes, it is far from clear that what graduate students learn in their classes—even with the best teachers—translates into conscious principles or insights that can then be applied to the practice of language teaching. However, one might imagine a departmental policy that encourages graduate professors to devote some part of their class time to making explicit their pedagogies and discussing the interrelationships between their theoretical and literary perspectives, on the one hand, and their teaching practices, on the other. Just as graduate students encounter and work with a variety of critical approaches and perspectives, the occasional explicit discussion of the pedagogical perspectives of their professors would provide them with a broader view of teaching than any one faculty member alone can provide. It would also demonstrate the faculty's commitment to an integrated mission of teaching and scholarship at all levels of the curriculum.

The initiatives described above are small but significant steps towards a process of rethinking, at an institutional level, the assumptions that have oriented our profession for half a century. The kind of change I am suggesting may not come easily, either for literature faculty or for language specialists, for we have accommodated ourselves to existing structures for all or most of our professional lives. For faculty in literature/culture, breaking down the barrier between language programs and the larger curriculum will imply some degree of attentiveness to, or engagement with, areas of activity that have formerly been relegated to the language program director. For program directors, it involves giving up some of the exclusive control we have traditionally enjoyed over the language program. It may require that we rethink our own positions with respect to the interrelationships among language, literature, and culture and between theory/research and application/teaching. For many of us, it will also require crossing disciplinary boundaries in order to acquire some understanding of the theoretical discourse of our colleagues and to consider how that discourse might inform our programs and our pedagogies. Ultimately, however, we cannot make the context of TA training convergent with the content of what we teach unless we are willing to make that effort.

Conclusion

A great deal has changed since the growth of the TA system and the advent of multi-section programs made TA training and specialized program directors desirable in departments of national languages, literatures, and cultures. Language study, especially in the light of emerging paradigms, is no longer limited to the mastery of correct form and appropriate usage but is seen increasingly as a site for cross-cultural encounter and discovery. Teachers are no longer expected to be mere practitioners of a prescribed methodology but must be able to draw on diverse areas of scholarship in order to help their students discover the challenge and the pleasures of learning a foreign way to speak, to think, and to view the world. Finally, the training of graduate teaching assistants is no longer seen only as a way to ensure coherence and uniform standards within language programs, but has become established as an important part of TAs' professional development. Yet we continue to train our TAs within institutional structures predicated on the separateness of language study from the other academic pursuits of a department, on the opposition of teaching to scholarship, and on a reductive view of language study as skill acquisition. In so doing we enable the continued trivialization of language instruction, and we miss the opportunity to help graduate students see the potential for productive relationships between their graduate research and their teaching. If TA training is to be congruent with the cultural context in which it takes place (and it must be, if our work is not to be constantly undermined), we must actively seek to challenge and change the structures and practices that are incompatible with the content of what we teach. We owe nothing less to our graduate students and to the undergraduates they teach.

Notes

1. This assertion might be challenged on grounds that MLA job listings in the recent past show a slight increase in tenure-track hires in Second Language Acquisition or Applied Linguistics. This evidence, however, must be interpreted with caution. Before claiming that departments are becoming more open to specialists in these areas, we would need to know more about the kinds of scholars eventually hired to fill these positions—and, more importantly, whether they do in fact receive tenure.
2. In considering a lecture-discussion format, I am not suggesting that we return to the model in which a faculty member conducts lectures on grammar and usage and TAs conduct drill sections. Rather, I imagine an approach that allows TAs and faculty to work collaboratively, integrating cultural and literary perspectives as well as helping students develop communicative and social ability in the language.

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The Professional Development of Highly Experienced and Less Experienced Teachers: Meeting Diverse Needs

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Economists often use the term "opportunity cost." An opportunity cost refers to any situation or circumstance considered to be "positive" that always brings with it a cost—a downside, an unexpected "unhappy" result, a negative, a "bill." The massive new knowledge that research in applied linguistics and fields related to foreign language education has offered in the past twenty years has provided a great **opportunity** for re-thinking curricula, for providing workplaces that are creative and exciting, and for generating an enhanced self-esteem among practitioners through increased decision-making capacities. One **cost** of this great opportunity, however, is often the professional self-esteem of teaching staff members who did not participate in or even perhaps witness the second language acquisition research revolution; who were not trained to believe that they are personally empowered to effect educational change; and who were socialized into an extremely hierarchical workplace where "experience" counted the most.

This paper discusses the dilemma of trying to provide professional development opportunities to teaching staff members who populate radically different conceptual spaces vis-à-vis language teaching. One portion of a teaching staff may have been in the trenches for 25 years and may not have any formal knowledge of second language acquisition (SLA) and research findings derived from it, while a younger portion of a teaching staff may have very different expectations about how to approach teaching and learning. These two conceptual spaces set the stage for a potentially explosive and divisive teaching staff configuration. Indeed, these spaces exist in virtually all instructional settings; both small college programs with tenure-line staff that bring in new assistant professors, as well as large programs that rely on non-tenure track teaching staff and graduate student teachers are not immune to these issues. It is, of course, very old news to discuss generational conflict or to decry hierarchies. Transitions from older to younger staff—no matter where (in an educational setting or in the local WalMart)—are simply a part of human nature. And hierarchies, too, seem to be normal human structures: the older one is, the more experienced in a system, the more "power"—real or imagined. The purpose of this essay is not to rehearse issues that are normal within a system, but to highlight the uniqueness of the present situation; to caution how potentially destructive "the opportunity" provided by SLA-influenced teacher development really might be; and to suggest some strategies to ameliorate unnecessary, but perhaps inevitable, tensions within teaching staffs.

Two Distinctive Historical Settings: 1970-1980; 1985-1999

A highly experienced teaching staff in the year 2000 (meaning people who have spent most of 25–30 years in full-time teaching) received most of its professional training around 1970. In the early seventies professional training generally consisted of a "methods course" which had a "methods book" that encapsulated knowledge about the four skills. In fact, in an important review of teaching conducted under the auspices of the President's Commission on Languages and International Study (1979), Benseler and Schulz (1979) carefully catalogue the methods texts used at the time: Allen and Valette, *Classroom Techniques: Foreign Languages and English as a Second Language* (1977); Chastain, *Developing Second-Language Skills: Theory to Practice* (1976); Grittner, *Teaching Foreign Languages* (1977); Rivers, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of French* (1975) (which also included companion volumes on German, Spanish, and Russian); and Papalia, *Learner-Centered Language Teaching: Methods and Materials* (1976). These books still sit on the shelves of many of the fortysomething and fiftysomething generations of language teachers. The books themselves are relatively thorough and exhaustive lists of techniques: they are practice-oriented and were often referred to as "cookbooks," hierarchized according to grammar teaching (always first and foremost); the sound system; and then general techniques attached to "skills" such as listening comprehension and reading. To be fair, Chastain and Rivers do more than list techniques. They include conceptual and theoretical frameworks based in cognitive psychology; those frameworks are, principally, however, interpretations for second language contexts rather than documentation generated within second language settings and populations.

Contemporary discourse of the time also referenced method as meaning audiolingual, cognitive, direct, and grammar/translation as well as some "left-of-center" approaches such as The Silent Way and Suggestopedia. These methods are relics of a different kind of conceptualization of the act of foreign language teaching—that it could somehow be captured and packaged. There were ways to drill; ways of presenting vocabulary; ways of interacting with students (Moskowitz 1976); ways of using the overhead projector and audiotape recordings that would bring about student achievement. The task of the teacher-in-training was to ingest the information from the methods book and to practice the techniques in mini-lessons in methods courses. The teacher-in-training then participated in student teaching and learned from a person in the trenches the extent to which the methods in the methods book worked or not. Assessment consisted of achievement tests—scores on grammar and vocabulary tests that were rarely integrative in nature.

By the early 1980s, this model of teacher education was quickly becoming incompatible with societal forces as well as research forces. The notion of language for a purposive use (not just as mental exercise) entered the general public arena. The public outcry for relevance and usefulness in the educational experience was clear. Not only was this brought about by calls from government and business (with the rhetoric of national need, Cold War, and concerns about global business competition illustrated by the President's Commission Report of 1979), but also by observations of the growing English as a Second Language (ESL) industry that had no time or resources to offer immigrants traditional grammatically-sequenced learning. The ESL subfield of language teaching was focused on functionality—immediate needs such as health care and food—not on the present perfect subjunctive. Many people who had never been "trained" in the concept of method, and in fact, had never been trained as language teachers were entering the workplace. Language teaching—English language teaching—was seen as a social service. A number of books and articles in the 1990s address these dilemmas (Bernhardt 1998; Scarcella 1990; Tollefson 1995).

Further, an explosion of research in second language learning asserted itself, bringing with it a need for knowledgeable teacher consumers and for new academic sub-areas related to language teaching, such as second language reading and writing. This explosion radically changed the character of teacher education. Second language development, rooted in research in child language acquisition, became a key concept. Learners, just as children, did not have a Latinate-grammatical sequence in their heads. They did not learn one form and then move to the next form; rather, forms such as prepositions were learned over a period of time and in a particular sequence—not in Chapter 6. It was no longer necessarily the case that the past tense could only be learned *after* the present. Research findings brought about the questioning of an array of assumptions about linguistic versus psycholinguistic simplicity and about which forms learners find easily learnable versus understandable (Ellis 1994; Pienemann 1984; VanPatten 1998). Comprehension research, too, led to very different perspectives on whether students should or even must be presented with linguistically simplified materials. First-language literate students could understand much more than they could produce, leading to the conclusion that there was little need to restructure or to rewrite materials for learners (Bernhardt 1991; Lee and Musumeci 1988). These and other inconsistencies between research and practice emerged as significant concerns by the late 1980s. Most of the findings were clearly at odds with the sequencing of grammatical forms in traditional language textbooks and classrooms.

Research in teacher education and calls for educational reform also current in the 1980s spawned diverse views on different models of professional preparation. Because learning was perceived as a developmental, constructive process, teacher learning also followed suit (Schulman 1986). Research that was common in the 1960s and 1970s—process product research—that statistically correlated teacher actions with student achievement became de rigueur (Wittrock 1986) and teacher conceptualization of the learning process coupled with the knowledge of individual student involvement led to different versions of how teachers are perceived and how they approach their work. Teacher decision making underlined an acceptance of research-based principles, a recognition of the sociology of classrooms and their complexities, and cognitive activity and engagement on the part of teachers—not as professionals who follow recipes, but as learners who co-construct learning and the learning environment with fellow learners, namely, students (Clark and Peterson 1986). The ethic became one in which teachers are viewed as life-long learners who are able to monitor and reflect on their own experiences and to analyze their own professional trajectory (Richards and Lockhart 1994), who value learning as a process of growth and understanding (Clark and Peterson 1986), and who are flexible in their thinking and open to alternative structures and modalities (Allwright and Bailey 1991; Chaudron 1988). Further, the literature on inservice development clarified that experienced teachers need to have different sorts of professional development experiences from their less experienced counterparts. They need to have greater input into these experiences (i.e., they need to plan them and for the most part choose them) and their professional development opportunities need to be conducted by people perceived as peers with equivalent experience (Evans 1987; Kyle and Sedotti 1987).

The academic field of language teaching changed substantially, too. In the 1970s and 1980s second language academics conducted pedagogical workshops that were "hands on" and "how-to," driven by a sense of activity that keeps instruction moving forward. By the late '80s workshops became more conceptually oriented, focused on a research or theory-based concept with theoretically consistent activities attached. This development is, in part, due to the identification of the field of applied linguistics, consisting of a conflation of academic areas such as linguistics, sociology, and language education. Not only was a dialogue generated between these academic fields and "practice," but that dialogue also facilitated the development of subfields such as investigations into oral and written discourse, investigations and understandings of registers, the relationship between first and second language literacy in both reading and writing, and cross-language analyses of the development of grammatical forms. All of these areas came to be seen as forming the tapestry of the academic field of language teaching—one which indeed consists of individual pieces that form a highly complex and varied whole, not the traditional monolithic image of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (plus culture). Indeed, a particular consequence of this diversity was the unraveling of the traditional and almost exclusive goal of language study, literature study. By the end of the century, literature study was perceived as only *one* avenue within a diverse array of uses for language learning—not as the key purpose of advanced language study (Bernhardt 1995; Byrnes 1995; Kramsch 1995).

A final critical force pressuring new modes of teacher conceptualization and a reorientation toward teaching method was the concept of "proficiency." As researchers and teachers made a break with the tradition of seat-time and shifted toward the notion of performance, they came to confront the focus on desired student output/performance in the target language and what teachers needed to do to achieve desired student performance. Rather than "method," the concept of "Teaching for Proficiency" became the characteristic mantra of the period and its full spirit was embodied in Omaggio Hadley's *Teaching Language in Context* (1993). The book itself was structured according to the Foreign Service Institute model of assessing oral proficiency on a five-point scale. Professional inservice training opportunities were overwhelmingly focused on training teachers to learn to use the Foreign Service Institute scale and to become certified raters of oral proficiency. Significant resources were devoted toward the training of a cadre of educators who could assess the language level of students according to a scale not specific to a particular curriculum, namely the FSI/ACTFL scale (Bernhardt 1998; Hancock and Scebold 2000).

Two Distinct Practical Positions: The 1990s

Training versus development, experience versus collaboration, longevity in the workplace versus an elaborate professional preparation, experience-based wisdom versus research-based knowledge: these various forces inserted themselves into the professional arena by the end of the 1980s. The question to be addressed in the next portion of this paper is thus *What might happen and does happen when these forces collide?*

Historically, the professional development of teachers was a relatively individual and solitary endeavor. Kyle and Sedotti note:

> Traditionally, once teachers entered professional life, their continuing education was not only difficult to trace but, like teaching itself, professional development assumed a largely private and independent nature . . . Teachers' decisions to continue their professional education emanated largely from specific personal and professional circumstances (1987, p. 101).

They continue:

> TEACHERS NEED HELP! Teachers do not, however, need help due to a lack of skill, motivation, or commitment. Rather, teachers need help in order to keep pace with a society that is undergoing rapid social, political, and economic changes that are impacting the process of schooling. Teachers are cognizant of the fact that our scientific and technological information base is expanding at an astonishing rate . . . (p. 103).

The question for the latter half of this paper is *But what if part of the teaching staff really doesn't believe Kyle and Sedotti's assertion?* In other words, what if their response to the whole concept of teaching staff development is one or a combination of the following? *"But I've been teaching effectively for more than 25 years . . ." "But I've been here for 25 years . . ." "But I only have 5 years to retirement . . ."*

"But I've been teaching effectively for more than 25 years . . ." There is no denying that teachers have always been in classrooms and that many of their students have come away from the instructional experience quite satisfied. It is also true that this satisfaction with the instructional experience can be linked to the amount of learning, but also to more ephemeral matters such as personality and engagement. Teachers often equate "effective" with positive student evaluations. This equation is not necessarily meaningful or appropriate, but it is pervasive. The logic of "don't fix it if it's not broken" is very much at odds with a view of trying new things and of changing practice on the basis of new research-based knowledge. In other words, competing cultural values are represented by an experienced teaching staff versus a less experienced teaching staff. Example: What might be unheard of or unthinkable practice within a contemporary second language acquisition perspective—books and materials that are more than 25 years old, constant searching of remainder houses for books that are out of print, not using audio and video in language instruction because it is "entertainment" and not "serious" work—can be considered to be highly effective practice within an experiential framework because it has been tested without complaint for 25 years. In other words, if the teaching evaluations are always positive, what justification is there for change?

A question to pose is whether just because an idea is new it must be better. Or whether just because a modern view constructs language teaching in one way, it necessarily means that alternative ways are not effective. The profession needs to acknowledge that there is no research at the moment that indicates that a teacher trained since the onset of second language acquisition research is in fact a more effective instructor. The evidence available is indirect at best. In a technology-oriented, Western, industrialized view it is argued that effective teaching is characterized by the utilization of new knowledge based on research rather than just "folk wisdom." This view also espouses a belief that "natural" is better than inauthentic and that immediate access to other cultures (i.e., through video, Internet, or films) is better than no access. To be honest, however, there is much more cultural belief at play here than the evidence might suggest. Professional views have perhaps metamorphized into truths.

"But I've been here for 25 years . . ." Teachers often view longevity as a significant predictor of success and effectiveness. The sense of threat imposed by the less experienced, yet potentially more highly educated and more pointedly educated teacher (at least in the second language acquisition literature) is genuine. The thought that younger teaching staff could be considered for and encouraged to take leadership positions is in conflict with old hierarchies. Younger teaching staff tend to accept "not knowing" as perfectly normal and seek assistance from professional development opportunities. Older teaching staff may see such opportunities as admissions of incompetence. The potential to look down upon younger teaching staff for admitting that they need additional training and to pressure them not to participate is real. At some level, a dispassionate glance says to move forward without regard to the older teaching staff. Yet it is difficult to balance the self-esteem of the older teaching staff and revere their experience while allowing new ideas to take hold and foster leadership.

"But I only have 5 years to retirement . . ." Language teaching is exhausting. The five-day-a-week language class full of energetic 18-year-olds is draining beyond belief. In an incredibly hectic world, there needs to be some sympathy for those who say they're tired and that they can't do much more. Dealing with teaching staff who take pride in their careers and yet who have little energy or engagement for change and innovation in their practice is challenging. *Who can blame those who want to slow down?* But a further question is: *How we can insure that their desire to slow down does not interfere with the progress of the teaching staff development program?* There are indeed issues of equity. An older teaching staff may make more money; these teachers probably should, but their productivity level might be perceived as considerably less compared to the newer teaching staff when measured by today's standards. For example, it is currently not unusual for newer teaching staff to post their language course syllabi on the Internet and to have each syllabus linked to an array of different websites. Further, course websites often have exercises, video clips, current news from the target culture, and so forth all set up conveniently for student use. Considerable work goes into website development and one cannot fail to appreciate this talent, energy, and vision, especially when they are juxtaposed with a five year old paper syllabus consisting only of the page numbers of textbook lessons and test dates.

And what about the part of the teaching staff who accept Kyle's and Sedotti's assertion? New hires and younger teaching staff members, those who enter with formal knowledge of applied linguistics, also present challenges: how to offer enough development activities that feed their sense of scholarship and their professional ethic of attending workshops and discussing the knowledge they gain there. These younger teachers might lament that they have to hide their professional interests and that they wish they had more opportunities for professional exchange. Most disturbingly, they might ignore and look down upon the older teaching staff. Furthermore, sometimes the less experienced teachers do not value, as much as their more experienced colleagues do, the importance of establishing rapport with their students. The confidence that comes with research-based knowledge can, for some, dispel the notion that language learning is about connections among people.

And what about the pre-SLA teachers who really do try to modernize their practice? A pre-SLA trained teaching staff may indeed not understand what is meant by professional development and may be honestly afraid to admit that. Getting past the lack of understanding may only be a minor hurdle. Once past it, many more experienced teachers, too, can be actively involved in setting goals for themselves, in finding conferences to attend, and books that they need to read. But what to do when the effort itself is still well outside the boundaries of contemporary thinking? Example: A more experienced instructor announces that she is indeed going to pursue the use of technology in her classes. When asked what she is going to do she says: "I'm going to put my grammar lessons on transparencies rather than writing the rules on the board. I've never used an overhead projector." As stunning as this is, it demonstrates an incredible level of courage and yet an even more incredible naivete. And what to do when there is no effort but only resignation? Example: A more experienced instructor announces: "We just don't cut it anymore, do we?" Resignation and dejection are truly major and hidden costs of many reforms and innovations in language teaching.

Dilemmas and Ideas

This author makes no claim that solutions to the dilemmas have been presented here; in fact, it is for this reason that the word *ameliorate* rather than the word *avert* has been used earlier. Nor is this paper a call for "out with the old and in with the new." It is a call for realism: realism about the diversity of professionals in our ranks; realism about the complexities introduced by research in language learning, in teacher education, and about classrooms; realism about the challenges presented by classrooms; and realism about what we concretely know about language teaching versus what we want to believe.

Designing professional development opportunities for teachers is always tricky business. Teachers need to be involved in the development of those opportunities, but what if the teaching staff sit at opposite ends of a continuum on issues ranging anywhere from topics to be addressed to format? One answer is to design professional development for the more experienced teaching staff and separate development activities for the less experienced, post-SLA teaching staff. Such design carries with it, however, the **cost** of potentially driving the two elements even further apart and of perpetuating the same 1970s knowledge base. What may happen if the development activities are designed by one group and the other group joins in? There is a possibility that one group may be threatened by the information and, therefore, may undermine the actual professional development activity. A compromise of material and format, along with an effort to maintain self-esteem and mutual respect, is a difficult if nearly impossible balance to achieve. One notion is to make sure that the groups have interacted and learned to rely on each other about something *other than language teaching*. It is not unusual in corporate settings to have staff involved in problem-solving activities apart from their actual jobs: taking CPR training together or contributing to and participating in charity challenges, for example. These kinds of events establish trust and build groups and may be crucial preliminaries, far more crucial than anything to do directly with language teaching.

Is the profession at large helpful in recognizing and healing the potential divisions within teaching staff? People sensitive to the social and cognitive complexities of teaching staff—namely, generic teacher educators, for lack of a better term—frequently do not have expertise in foreign language education. So if the goal of professional education is to provide up-to-the-minute thinking, the natural tendency is to ask people who publish their up-to-the-minute thinking to conduct professional development opportunities. But if those opportunities are full of technical SLA-speak, they are of little value. Example: To take as an issue **assessment** and to begin with a concept of test statistics is to start down the wrong road—the wrong road cognitively because some teaching staff may not have the appropriate background to begin there and the wrong road socially because it signals an insensitivity to teachers' daily lives in classrooms. Many SLA professionals are uninterested in notions of teacher development. Herein lies the possibility of having highly respected researchers in the field do more harm than good. The experience of those in the trenches needs to be acknowledged and respected. Sometimes the technical information is revered and constructed as if it holds more importance than teacher knowledge and the context in which teachers work.

The critical point is that all teachers are interested in their students—they all exhibit a high degree of care and concern for student learning. Anything that helps teachers perceive that "things will be better for students" is a selling feature. The post-SLA teaching staff come automatically equipped with concepts of student learning and performance and so any abstraction can be placed against that backdrop—hence, starting with the test statistics might work for this group. The pre-SLA teaching staff have a fully developed sense of activity, of carrying instruction forward through structured actions. Beginning with a sense of feedback and its quality may well be the more productive stance for such professionals. Frankly, only outsiders with an appreciation of the complexities and sensitivities involved in teaching staff development can provide useful development opportunities. Outsiders without those sensitivities are not helpful. Furthermore, insiders are frequently stuck, being unable to be "prophets in their own lands."

Diversity among the teaching staff can be the source of dilemmas that catch researchers' attention. Perhaps an examination of organizational theory will help the field to understand how to cope sensitively and reasonably with the issues presented here. Perhaps the time has also come for a realistic re-assessment of the importance and impact of second language learning research. Has the field so emulated the literary research field that decries classroom experience and elevates theory that it has lost sight of what is truly important for learners and teachers? It is, of course, possible that the phenomena described here are just predictable instances of generational conflict and change. Perhaps this is simply what happens when individuals are put out to pasture or feel they are being put out to pasture; perhaps it is true that youthful zeal always leads in the direction of decrying a previous generation. At some level, these are questions for the field. Perhaps at the more fundamental level, though, they are personal questions for all teachers and language program directors to consider.

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Mentoring in Style: Using Style Information to Enhance Mentoring of Foreign Language Teachers

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Although priorities have been shifting over the past decade, in many institutions mentoring is still considered an optional duty of program supervisors. In fact, in a survey of educational beliefs held by community college administrators, the importance of mentoring ranked significantly lower than issues of funding, politicking, and community involvement (Seagren et al. 1994). This is unfortunate because mentoring is one of the most important functions of any language program director, and program quality can often be traced to quality of mentoring (Leaver forthcoming).

The growing, but still limited, literature on mentoring that we have encountered often consists of generic platitudes or lists of do's and don'ts. In such cases, mentoring is seen as a non-unique series of activities or actions taken with any new teacher. Even the better-known works in L2 related to program direction and TA development tend to look at global, staff-wide issues, making across-the-board suggestions for both program management and, where discussed, mentoring. (See, for example, Arens 1991; Azevedo 1990; Benseler and Cronjaeger 1990; Dryer 1997; Magnan 1993;[1] Pérez 1993; Rahilly 1992; Waldinger 1993.)

This paper suggests an alternative view. Not only do we consider mentoring to be an essential part of a language program manager's responsibilities, but we also find a need to individualize the process of mentoring if it is to be as effective as it can be.

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Definition of Mentoring and Issues Surrounding It

Mentoring is defined as "the process in which successful individuals go out of their way to help others establish goals and develop the skills to reach them" (The Mentoring Group 2000). The Mentoring Group (1997) and the National Mentoring Partnership (2000b) offer useful discussions on how to succeed in building positive mentoring relationships. The goals of new teachers at the post-secondary level are generally multiple, but three strands can be easily discerned: (1) to gain tenure or other professional advancement; (2) to become a good researcher or specialist in some aspect of language, literature, culture, or linguistics; and (3) to become a good classroom teacher within a given program. It is the last goal that this paper addresses, specifically, mentoring new foreign language teachers into becoming satisfied and effective classroom teachers within the foreign language program and team in which they are working. (Such mentoring may well result in teachers' ability to transfer readily to other programs or enhance their career options, but attention to those aspects of mentoring, while important, are not the focus of this paper.).

Although much is known in business circles and in theory and research about effective mentoring, good mentoring unfortunately fails to occur for many new teachers of foreign languages. Why does adequate mentoring fail to happen in so many instances? The National Mentoring Partnership (2000a) provides a few key reasons. First, there is often insufficient support for mentoring in programs. Second, schools and universities, along with other institutions, allot insufficient resources to mentoring. Third, potential mentors typically lack access to information about how to serve as mentors. Fourth, a high attrition rates exists among mentors, often because of a lack of recognition and visibility for excellence in mentoring. Phillips-Jones (2000) underscores the last point, indicating that mentors need positive reinforcement (recognition) from mentees in order to feel satisfied and continue doing a good job at mentoring.

Another reason for difficulties is that mentoring, like marriage, frequently involves a clash of "cultures" or belief systems between two people. A recent *Psychology Today* article (Marano 2000) discusses marriage, but what is said about marriage in that article can just as readily describe the mentor-mentee relationship. Therefore, in the following passage, the word "marriage" is removed, and the phrase "mentoring relationship" is inserted in brackets.

> In any [mentoring relationship], each partner to some degree represents a different culture with different traditions and rituals and

> symbols. The two distinct sets of highly structured traditions are . . . deeply emotionally resonant. . . . [If these cultures are not understood], one or both parties is bound to feel bad. . . . The problem is, culture clash is built into the [mentoring relationship]. . . . That, however, is where the fun begins—the conflict causes electricity and the need to discuss things and compare perspectives and thus come to know one another and oneself (Marano 2000, p. 60).

A potentially serious conflict in the mentoring relationship can relate to the style of the mentor and the mentee. "Style" relates to a host of characteristics that comprise a person's individuality. Style, along with the ability to understand and deal with differences in style as part of the mentoring process, is the focus of this paper. Although mentoring in style can apply to a range of situations, this paper addresses one specific instance: the mentoring of new teachers in a university environment. The mentee referred to here is a teaching assistant (TA), part-time faculty member, or other instructor new to teaching or new to the program in which he or she is currently teaching, and the mentor is the language program director or coordinator. The venues in which mentoring can take place include individual interactions and group interactions. In each case, style plays a significant role; hence, this paper begins by defining some of the more important (in our experience) styles and explaining their general significance before proceeding to provide concrete applications to individuals and groups.

Several models for TA development have been proposed. Most include several components: pre-service workshops, methods courses, class observation, peer observation and assistance, practice teaching, reflective teaching (including the use of journals and videotapes), formative evaluation, and summative evaluation (Azevedo 1990). Such models assume that all TAs are inexperienced teachers—yet a number of TAs are experienced teachers returning to the university for an advanced degree. They also assume that all TAs are alike in their needs—another misperception. This paper does not propose any specific model but addresses the ways in which attention to style differences can inform the selection and implementation of program components, so that mentees receive the kind of mentoring they need rather than the hit-and-miss effect offered via a generic TA-development program. In short, our concern is with the quality of the mentoring process and not necessarily with the form that it takes, our assumption being that a good mentor is a chameleon and a good mentoring program may reduce to precepts but not to uniform actions and formats.

The Key to Effective Mentoring: Providing Equal, Not Identical, Treatment

One of the most frequent causes of supervisor error, according to Van Fleet (1973), is failure to treat subordinates as individuals. One could assume, then, that differentiation might be critical to successful mentoring of new teachers since faculty members are not all cut from the same piece of cloth. Differences in education and experience are usually anticipated and accepted by mentors. However, what mentors often fail to notice—to everyone's detriment—are style differences among individuals, including differences in personality type, cognition, preferred modality, conceptual tempo, and biology. Mentors who differentiate, i.e., who mentor in style, report that the results are worth the effort of learning to recognize and react to these differences.

Personality Type Differences

What constitutes the uniqueness of each "person" is, in great part, an individual personality. Today's concepts emanate most frequently from the work of Carl Jung (1971), whose theories and research have blossomed into a juncture of philosophical and sociological inquiry.[2] Recent years have seen the emergence of personality typologies manifested in two related measurement instruments that work well in mentoring: the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers and Briggs 1976) and, extrapolated from the MBTI, Keirsey's Temperament Sorter (Keirsey and Bates 1988). Both systems posit four dimensions: extraversion (Jung's preferred spelling) (E) versus introversion (I), Sensing (S) versus Intuiting (N), Feeling (F) versus Thinking (T), and Judging (J) versus Perceiving (P). The first three dimensions are based on Jungian categories. Myers and Briggs suggested the fourth, and Keirsey adopted it. The individual dimensions are discussed below.[3]

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I) Extraverts derive their energy and values from the external world. They seek interaction with people and tend to have many friendships, some deep and some superficial. They feel energized by a day full of intensive meetings or highly interactive work (depending, of course, on the subject matter). In mentoring E teachers, mentors need to invest time in personal interaction, although many Extraverts are satisfied with interaction received in group activities. E teachers can very easily exhaust I mentors—and still have energy to spare.

In contrast, Introverts derive their energy and values from the internal world. They seek solitude and tend to have a few friendships, which are often very deep. At the end of an intensive meeting or a day full of highly interactive work, they need time to regenerate. In mentoring I teachers, mentors may need to meet with them one-on-one in a quiet environment away from group activities. If there is to be a difficult discussion, such as the topic of inadequacies in teaching performance, Introverts often need time before the meeting to prepare and after the meeting to sort through their reactions. E mentors may quickly tire I teachers. Therefore, some E mentors establish time limits for meetings.

Extraverts and Introverts *can* work together. Putting time limits on agenda items at meetings can hold the enthusiasm of Extraverts to manageable levels. Making different faculty members responsible for leading the discussion on each of the agenda items gives Introverted teachers the opportunity to participate on a near-equal basis with the Extraverts. So does publishing the agenda in advance, so that I teachers can prepare comments. (Along the same lines, teacher-generated agendas can be very successful at giving I teachers confidence in participating actively in faculty meetings.) Another meeting activity that helps I teachers compete with their E peers for the floor is to go around the table at the beginning of the meeting to see if anyone has something to add to the agenda and at the end of the meeting to see if anyone has something still to say. Tannen (1994) suggests the Japanese idea of *nemawashi*, in which the meeting leader meets with each attendee privately to collect conflicting ideas and work out issues in advance so that the meetings can become places where consensus is reached. (Although Tannen's point was in reference to giving equal opportunity to both men and women at business meetings, the same principle can be applied to Introverts and Extraverts at faculty meetings.)

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Sensing (S) and Intuiting (N)

Sensing types are grounded in the here and now. For them, the most important time is today. They pay attention to the physical world around them, noticing details. They prefer to make decisions based on concrete reality and are convinced by statistics and facts. In mentoring S teachers, mentors need to provide detailed information, facts, and statistics—especially if they want to convince them of something. S teachers often frustrate N mentors with their lack of acceptance of assertions or new ideas. The problem is usually not the "difficult" S teacher; it is the lack of experience and insight that the typical N mentor has in marshaling fact-based arguments. Where "seeing is believing" to the S teacher, "faith in oneself" is the modus operandi of the N mentor.

Intuiting types look to the future. For them, the most important time is tomorrow. They pay attention to the world of ideas, noticing concepts. They prefer to make decisions based on possibility—actually, multiple and often grand possibilities—and are convinced by gut feelings and insights. In mentoring N teachers, mentors need to provide a theoretical construct and rationale. Mentors can set the stage for self-conviction but may need to wait until the N teacher has analyzed, reorganized, and rethought his or her opinion vis-à-vis the new input. N teachers can seem disorganized and "ungrounded" to S mentors, who may not value the N teacher's innovative (or unorthodox) approaches to teaching—and to life.

Sensing people and Intuitive people *can* work together. In setting goals as a team, conflict can be minimized by keeping in mind that Sensing individuals prefer simple, quickly attainable goals. Kroeger and Thuesen (1992) contend that Sensing people use the principles of KISS (Keep It Simple, Stupid) as their model of life. Intuitives, however, tend to set challenging and inspirational goals. In planning a program change (e.g., undertaking an experiment in Languages Across the Curriculum—a popular emendation to contemporary foreign language department offerings), N teachers can be counted on to establish the long–term, strategic goals and S teachers to put numbers, dates, and preliminary steps to the goals. Separating planning tasks in this way can maintain harmony on a team that might be frustrated by a full-group activity in which all team members participate in both establishing the strategic vision and writing the action plan. (While all teachers ultimately need to agree to both the strategy and the tactics, they all do not have to be involved in developing both.)

Trouble can arise when the Intuitive members of a group present far more goals, ideas, and possibilities than the Sensing members can handle. The Sensing individuals may become nervous and criticize the ideas on the grounds of feasibility. In response, the Intuitive people in the group may feel that their wonderful, futuristic thoughts are not being taken seriously, and they sometimes consider the other group members to be reactionaries. What can be done in such a situation? Sometimes the mentor can help a conflicted group like this to pare down the list of potential actions, thus pleasing the Sensing members, while praising the innovation of the Intuitives in the group, thus maintaining a balance between the needs of the Intuitive and the Sensing individuals.

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Feeling (F) and Thinking (T)

Feeling people value other people in highly personal ways. They will tell a white lie to avoid hurting someone else's feelings. They show caring with words, as well as actions, and they want to be respected for their hard work. In mentoring Feeling individuals, Thinking mentors might remember that F teachers respond to praise for their efforts, value loyalty, and only experience comfort when there is *esprit de corps* among colleagues. F teachers relate best to mentors they consider kind and caring. For T mentors, F teachers can seem emotionally demanding and needy, when they really are not. T supervisors tend to keep their own feelings under control and invisible, although they are not at all reticent to let their opinions be known. With a primarily F staff, there can be advantages in sharing feelings, however uncomfortable that may be for a T mentor.

New teachers, adjunct faculty, and even TAs sometimes have rich backgrounds. Newness to the specific foreign language program does not always equate to newness to the teaching field. Talented teachers, and even very experienced ones, still need personal growth and mentoring within the organization. Such teachers, when Fs, take input much more readily if their experience and skills are acknowledged and appreciated.

Thinking individuals value principle. They tell the truth, even when it causes hurt feelings. They show caring with actions rather than with kind words, which they often consider awkward or unnecessary. They want to be respected for their competence. In mentoring Thinking people, mentors need to understand that T teachers can be harder on themselves than any supervisor would be. F mentors who praise efforts even when results are poor may lose the respect of T teachers, especially when T teachers know that the quality of their own work leaves something to be desired. One T employee received an e-mail from his F mentor: "I know you did not want to do the task that I assigned but did it anyway; thank you for your effort; it is very much appreciated." The Thinking employee looked up at a colleague who had been reading over his shoulder and commented, "I didn't need that." Being praised for effort can make T teachers think that they are being manipulated. (One reason that T mentors do not praise F teachers often enough for their efforts is because such praise seems condescending to the T.)

On the other hand, attitudes toward praise and encouragement are occasionally fuzzy. For example, sometimes the T individual secretly wants to be praised, all the while acting as though praise is inessential. Such a person might find it hard to praise others but might need some overt praise when a job is well done or when a particularly difficult subtask is completed. The good mentor tries to assess the individual's need for praise and encouragement.

The T–F dimension seems to be the most difficult one in which to transcend differences. The value systems of Ts and Fs are nearly diametrically opposed, although, as we have just seen with the topic of praise, the lines are not always firmly drawn. F mentors with principally T staffs may need to prepare for meetings by converting values-based ideas into logical arguments. T mentors with principally F staffs may need to find overt ways of showing appreciation that do not necessarily come naturally to them: flowers, a handwritten note, or a pat on the back.

In addition, mentors can help their working teams or faculties to understand the key T–F differences. Mentors can teach T employees to give F colleagues a little of the overt compassion and caring that they need and can suggest that F employees turn down the expression of feelings and highlight logic when working with T colleagues. Mentors can help Ts and Fs to avoid burning each other up in spontaneous combustion based on their differences. Through sharing information about these differences, mentors can enhance the likelihood of Fs and Ts getting along and being productive together.

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Judging (J) and Perceiving (P)

Judgers like an ordered world. They work to deadline, prefer to do one task after another, and are more comfortable after questions have been decided. In contexts in which P teachers are more comfortable, J teachers can become very frustrated. "Just tell us what to do, and we'll do it," they often say in exasperation at brainstorming sessions that last too long for their patience. Mentors can delegate tasks to J teachers more effectively by putting information in writing, making tasks specific, giving a deadline, and avoiding multiple assignments (although there are some J teachers who can handle many different tasks at the same time).

Perceivers, on the other hand, like an open world. They work best when they have freedom, prefer to work on many tasks at the same time, and feel better while options remain open. In mentoring a Perceiving teacher, mentors need to allow choice and flexibility when possible. Reminding a P teacher of deadlines ahead of time may also help. P teachers may benefit from time management training that helps them convert their "open" sense of time to the "closed" sense of time that most institutions prefer.

Js and Ps often experience conflict over the need for closure. Js claim that Ps procrastinate, and Ps insist that Js jump to conclusions. The greatest disagreement between Perceivers and Judgers occurs around issues of time. According to Kroeger and Thuesen (1992), "when it comes to time management, it is a judger's world, hands down" (p. 87). They point out that good time-planners are the winners in contemporary society. For example, airlines reward early ticket purchase, banks reward long-term asset planning, and schools reward students who turn in papers on time. (In the academic world, punctuality routinely beats brilliance.) Kroeger and Thuesen label this "a conspiracy of judgers" (p. 88). By assigning committee work, mentor-supervisors can accommodate the talents of both J and P teachers without causing frustration. P teachers can work on brainstorming solutions to thorny issues, and J teachers can develop and conduct new pilot projects (that eventually generate more thorny issues).

This might not solve all J–P conflicts, of course. There will still be P individuals who will delay finalization of a project until the eleventh hour, sometimes for the thrill of living on the edge of disaster, and at other times to take in as much pertinent information as possible. At the same time, there will still be J individuals who will push the P people to be more serious, to stop being lazy, and to get the job done. To a great extent, however, misunderstandings about the nature and meaning of potential J–P conflicts can be alleviated by straightforward discussion.

Cognitive Differences

Many systems and instruments exist to help mentors study cognitive differences and structure their mentoring process. One of the most useful is the Gregorc scale (Gregorc 1982). Another important set of dimensions in the work place is the concept of a holistic-atomistic difference in approach to cognitive processing. These two sets of cognitive style categories can serve as examples of how to apply knowledge of cognitive differences to mentoring situations.[4]

The Gregorc Scale The Gregorc system is composed of two axes: abstract-concrete and random-sequential. These axes yield four cognitive types: abstract-random (AR), abstract-sequential (AS), concrete-sequential (CS), and concrete-random (CR).

Abstract-random individuals learn through observation. They process information theoretically and organize information in an individualized fashion. In fact, pre-organization of information can frustrate them. Advanced organizers in the classroom are anathema to ARs. They typically question the motivation for things: why something works or why they should become involved in something—even, why someone should mentor them. That last question certainly has to be answered before mentoring can be undertaken. In mentoring AR teachers, mentors might use videotapes, visual information, and class observation (by the AR teacher) to share ideas. Opening one's own classrooms to visitation by the AR teacher can be very helpful. Setting an example can provide much more education for the AR teacher than either written or spoken words.

Abstract-sequential individuals are quintessential book learners. They process information theoretically and expect imparted knowledge to be organized in advance. AS teachers usually want mentoring. Their questions most often center on a factual core: what needs to be done, what is important, what criteria will be used to assess them, and the like. In mentoring AS teachers, traditional classroom approaches work fine. The most common problem for AS teachers is understanding other styles because most of this type have always been excellent students in traditional environments. They tend to equate lack of success in foreign language learning with lack of effort.

Concrete-sequential individuals prefer hands-on learning. They learn by doing and expect information to be organized in advance. For CS teachers, knowing how something works is important. Knowing "how" for CS teachers means being aware of all the steps involved and being able to accomplish those steps themselves. Trying to understand an abstraction for them is often incomplete comprehension, accompanied by an inability to transfer the understanding to new environments. In mentoring CS teachers, the most successful mentors provide samples, step-by-step instructions, and the opportunity for practice.

Here we need to diverge for a true story about CS teachers encountering AS mentors. Never underestimate the drama and potential stress of such an encounter. Several years ago in Siberia, out-of-style mentoring set two dedicated groups of professionals against each other. After a week of extensive faculty development, the mentors in charge of a project to redesign English, French, and German national curricula asked the teachers responsible for writing the new curricula to produce examples of how the information learned at the workshop would affect their course development efforts. What the mostly AS mentors expected to see as "examples" were templates that could be used in writing a wide range of lessons. What the mostly CS teachers presented were detailed, unique, and complete sample lessons. The mentors reacted with anger and the teachers with near-tears—until they both realized how their cognitive differences had colored their expectations and interpretations, after which they were able to reestablish a collegial relationship.

Concrete-random individuals prefer to use trial and error in most of their endeavors. They learn by doing, especially when the "doing" is their own decision, and are frustrated by material that has been "predigested" (i.e., organized) for them. An important question for them often strikes fear in many supervisors and mentors: "What if . . . ?" CR individuals are great experimenters and risk-takers, whether they work in in foreign language teaching or in another profession. In mentoring CR teachers, many of whom are also NT personality types, mentors would be well forewarned to keep hands off and to provide support for the CR's creativity. Allowing CR teachers to fail and to learn from their failures is more important than ensuring that CR teachers always do things right or always succeed. Watching a new teacher fail is often a frustrating experience for non-CR mentors. However, CR teachers' emotional reactions are quite different. They tend to look at failure simply as one method of learning, and a useful one at that. So mentors (often considered unnecessary by CR teachers) fare best when they allow the CR teacher room for experimentation and innovative risk-taking. CR mentors can be very successful and creative at mentoring all kinds of teachers and often actually prefer the so-called "difficult" people. On the other hand, mentors with different cognitive styles can find CR teachers both difficult in general and difficult to mentor. What the CR teacher wants is a validator, a devil's advocate for new ideas, and a supporter who will stand by until needed. F mentors with other cognitive styles often feel "unneeded" and, therefore, experience difficulty in relating to CR teachers.

All four types can work together harmoniously, productively, and in a learning-oriented way. In developing a new curriculum, for example, CR teachers can be relied upon to devise innovative approaches, ARs to obtain the needed observations and feedback, the AS teachers to research the options, and CS teachers to determine the ways in which to implement a given approach and the steps to take in doing so. Given this kind of style-oriented assignment of responsibilities, even the most junior faculty member can bring real talent to the task, and all faculty can grow in significant ways by learning from each other.

Atomistic and Holistic Differences in Cognitive Processing A number of constructs, or styles, have been suggested that indicate a dichotomy in how individuals approach mental processes. The best-known dichotomy might well be the left brain (verbal), right brain (pictorial) distinction.[5] Others include synthetic (assembly) and analytic (disassembly) differences.[6] Still others have proposed a global (processing at the "forest," or big picture, level) versus analytic (processing at the "tree," or small pieces, level).[7] Most recently, Ehrman and Leaver (1997) have proposed the E&L Construct that divides cognitive style into two overarching domains: synoptic and ectenic (from the Greek word meaning *extension* or *déroulement*).[8] In essence, synopsis refers to the tendency to view the world as holistic and ectasis to the tendency to see the world as atomistic.

Holistic teachers need to be able to see the "big picture" before they can apply new teaching techniques or otherwise grow. A large collection of details, no matter how well organized, tends to be meaningless to them, but the big picture helps them sort through even the messiest assortment of details. Mentors who would make a significant contribution to holistic teachers' growth must teach them to work in an atomistic world, since most academic environments are atomistic. The great irony in all of this is that foreign language teachers, as well as foreign language students who learn languages easily at the earlier proficiency levels, i.e., those levels usually found in university programs, tend to be holistic (synoptic, right-hemisphere dominant, etc.) learners (Leaver 1986).[9]

In mentoring atomistic teachers, mentors also need to provide details, but for a different reason. Details are the mechanisms by which atomistic teachers understand and learn. Atomistic teachers and students may be the minority in language programs, but they are there. Further, the small amount of research available does indicate that atomistic (ectenic, left-hemisphere dominant, etc.) learners who continue foreign language study long enough ultimately reach higher levels of proficiency than do holistic learners, perhaps thanks to their innate abilities to monitor their language for accuracy of grammar and precision of lexicon (Leaver 1986). Therefore, mentors need to provide atomistic teachers with sufficient detail for task accomplishment.

Holistic and atomistic teachers are complementary and can work well together in a co-teaching environment. Holistic teachers can teach students such strategies as using context and hypothesis formation, and atomistic teachers can teach them such strategies as word analysis and hypothesis confirmation. Both sets of strategies are needed in a communicative classroom, and students, too, will be mixed between holistic and atomistic.

Modality Differences

The category of modality differences has several other labels, such as sensory preferences and perceptual styles. The most useful distinctions for the teaching workplace include the dimensions of visual, auditory, and motor styles.[10]

The Visual Modality Visual individuals prefer to acquire information through sight. Mentors, in working with visual teachers, can facilitate learning and communication by using visual support. In terms of instructional skills, they can teach non-visual teachers to assist visual learners in their classrooms through such practices as extensive use of the blackboard, providing written handouts to accompany audio texts, and allowing visual learners to read through listening material in advance.

In terms of mentor-mentee interactions, mentors can assist visual teachers by providing handouts of critical information at faculty meetings. (However, mentors would do well to remember that giving a handout before a discussion will probably set up a contest for the teacher's attention—and very likely, the written word will win. Mentors should also be aware that the desired listening will often fail to occur for visual individuals without the assistance provided by the handout. Typically, strongly visual people fidget and worry about the lack of a handout and do not hear what is being said.)

When asked to implement programs that rely on auditory or kinesthetic input over visual input (such as in the Audiolingual Method or early stages of Total Physical Response), visual teachers can become resistant. Since they need visual support to learn, their natural assumption is that students do, too. The current taboo in some circles on the use of flashcards, considered a decontextualized and, therefore ineffective, means of presenting vocabulary, calls forth vigorous disagreement from some visual learners, whose own vocabulary reserves often have been developed as a result of much work with flashcards. Mentors who understand the source of such resistance can take the right steps to reduce it.

The Auditory Modality Auditory individuals prefer to acquire information through sound. Auditory learners learn best when listening to a broadcast or participating in a discussion, and some do learn quite well from reading aloud, regardless of the results of generic research (which has not included perceptual style as a variable) that shows oral reading to be ineffective. In terms of instructional skills, mentors may have to teach auditory teachers to move beyond discussion in the foreign language classroom in order to facilitate learning for visual and kinesthetic learners. Non-auditory teachers can be encouraged to bring in video and audio tapes, include classroom discussion on lesson themes, and make tapes of reading assignments for their auditory students. In terms of mentor-mentee interactions, auditory teachers learn best when mentors take the time to discuss ideas with them, rather than expecting them to be able to incorporate ideas after reading about them. Not usually exceptionally skilled readers—after all, they do not choose to spend leisure time reading—auditory learners can resist extensive reading assignments as a precursor to methodological discussions. Mentors who understand that auditory learners do not read as rapidly or with as much pleasure as their visual counterparts can organize their faculty development sessions accordingly.

The Motor Modality Motor individuals prefer to acquire information through motion. Two categories exist for such people: mechanical learners and kinesthetic learners (Leaver 1998). Mechanical learners use their fine motor muscles for learning; kinesthetic learners use gross motor muscles. The kinesthetic teacher, or at least the one who allows his or her movement propensities to be manifested freely in the classroom, is something of a rarity; the educational process tends to eliminate or at least discourage kinesthetic learners from higher education. There may be an anti-kinesthetic bias in many schools beyond the elementary grades, yet there are probably more "closet kinesthetic" teachers than we realize—teachers who have suppressed their true natures in order to fit into relatively static educational systems and who have been able to access other modalities (perhaps a secondary preference) successfully. Mentors might help such teachers to overcome their fear of institutional bias against movement and to feel free to help their own students move expressively around the classroom through drama and games.

In terms of instructional skills, mentors may need to show non-kinesthetic teachers how to incorporate elements of TPR (Asher 1988) and other physical activities into classrooms with large numbers of kinesthetic learners. In Slavic languages, using a treasure hunt to teach verbs of motion can be especially effective for kinesthetic learners. As much as this approach seems like common sense, far too often non-kinesthetic teachers ask students to complete workbook pages, carry out in-seat dialogue recitation, or provide oral answers to textbook exercises. In mentoring motor teachers, mentors may need to make allowances for their need to use their muscles, letting them doodle or stand up at faculty meetings or move around the room, instead of sitting still, during individual counseling sessions—or even better, taking a walk together when thorny issues need to be discussed.

In terms of mentor-mentee interactions, motor teachers who must sit for long periods of time often resist the input being provided, not because of philosophical disagreements but because of frustration at being forced into what feels like a physical straitjacket. Mentors who realize this can determine ways to meet motor teachers' need for movement while accomplishing more sedentary goals.

Differences in Conceptual Tempo

Another aspect of style is conceptual tempo. Conceptual tempo refers to the slowness or rapidity with which an individual thinks before taking action, typically in a learning situation. Conceptual tempo is somewhat like but not identical to the Judging-Perceiving dichotomy (see the previous section on Personality Type Differences). Conceptual tempo contains four possibilities: slow-accurate, slow-inaccurate, fast-accurate, and fast-inaccurate. Western culture considers fast-accurate to be ideal and slow-inaccurate to be a serious blight. Of the four options, the most extensively researched in educational settings are slow-accurate (Reflective) and fast-inaccurate (Impulsive).

Reflectives are defined by researchers as those who take the time to deliberate systematically before taking action, who are accurate in problem solving, and who show good academic and work performance. Researchers view Impulsives as those who act very rapidly, use a hit-or-miss approach to problem solving, and have substandard academic and work performance.

However, among non-researchers the term Reflective has now come to include both slow-accurate and slow-inaccurate, and the term Impulsive has begun to cover both fast-accurate and fast-inaccurate. Thus, popular folk usage has made ambiguous the excellent-performance aspect of the Reflective style and the poor-performance aspect of the Impulsive style. Although this change is a distortion of the initial concept of conceptual tempo, it has become fairly pervasive in many areas of life, including (it would seem) the mentoring area.

Mentoring is most comfortable when mentor and mentee have a common conceptual tempo, as in Reflective mentor/Reflective mentee or Impulsive mentor/Impulsive mentee. Problems immediately arise when the mentor and mentee have different conceptual tempos. The Reflective mentor wants the Impulsive mentee to slow down and reflect on issues at hand, while the Impulsive mentor wants the Reflective mentee to quit cogitating and *do* something. Mentees have equally strong feelings about their mentors in situations where conceptual tempos clash. Such conflicts can be handled best when both mentor and mentee understand what is happening and refrain from making negative judgments about each other. More specific suggestions about Reflectives and Impulsives appear later in the section on mentoring the individual.

Biological Differences

Biological differences also affect teaching, teamwork, and mentoring. These differences include but are not limited to biorhythms, sustenance, location and environment, and gender. Research on these differences has been conducted by educators (Dunn and Dunn 1978) and by biological psychologists (Birch 1992; Treisman 1984).

Biorhythms Some teachers are wide awake at 6:00 A.M. Others awaken only as the day ends. We each have our own biorhythm, and, unfortunately, that biorhythm does not always fit well with institutional schedules. Noticing when a new teacher is most productive and scheduling counseling discussions or personal growth opportunities for those times can result in better responses. The same is true for scheduling meetings. If the majority of faculty is still asleep during the early morning, scheduling an 8:00 A.M. faculty meeting is counterproductive.

Sustenance Some teachers think better with something in their stomachs or while actually eating or drinking. Although it is not a common practice, allowing those in need of physical sustenance for brain activity to eat or drink something during counseling sessions or meetings can facilitate discussions. In fact, individual counseling sessions may be most effective if held at a coffee shop. On the other hand, teachers who do not need physical sustenance for learning may be distracted and less able to concentrate if dragged to a coffee shop to talk.

Location and Environment As they say, "some like it hot, some like it cold." Some like it dark, some like it light. Some like background music, some like silence. Thus, one person's castle is another person's prison. In meeting with new teachers for discussion, mentors would do well, if possible, to situate the discussion in a locale that is conducive to learning. One option is to meet in the teacher's office. There, the teacher has usually arranged the environmental controls (heat, light, and sound) in ways that are as optimal as possible for that person. A comfortable environment can make a significant difference in how well counseling sessions are received—to say nothing about the reduced threat associated with being "at home" rather than in the boss's office.

Mentoring the Individual

Mentoring individual teachers effectively is the cornerstone to mentoring the group and managing the program effectively. Mentoring in style is the key to mentoring individuals, whether the focus be instruction in foreign language education theory and practice, counseling, evaluation, or support of personal growth.

Instruction in Foreign Language Education Theory and Practice

When development of good teaching techniques is accomplished in accordance with teachers' styles, the overall performance of new teachers improves more rapidly. For some new teachers (e.g., visual

AS Introverts), assigned readings are likely to be highly informative. For others, seminars are excellent; this is especially true for auditory and kinesthetic CS Extraverts. For still others, such as visual AR Introverts, observations of master classes, demonstration classes, or peers' classes can be very helpful. An effective teacher development program will contain all of these activities in measure. In the very best programs, teachers will be able to select the activities that work best for them; there the mentor's role is help teachers determine the best activities for their development portfolio. Activities such as co-teaching and modeling can instruct teachers in style-flexible ways.

Co-Teaching One of the most effective ways to develop teaching techniques among new teachers is co-teaching, or two teachers in the classroom teaching together. The second teacher can be an experienced colleague or a supervisor-mentor. Co-teaching is useful in many ways, such as building relationships, developing specific techniques, and helping teachers learn how to differentiate among learners. Preparing and conducting lessons together helps the mentor see the new teacher's approach and instincts, as well as developing trust between mentor and teacher. There is the added advantage of conducting formative evaluation (evaluation that occurs during the development phase, rather than at the very end). Formative evaluation allows on-the-spot assistance and immediate improvement, whereas a post-observation discussion might be merely a critique that does not help the teacher very much. For many teachers, particularly those who like spontaneity and do not need to have in-depth reflection before making instructional changes, such immediate feedback is very effective. Supervisors have often found that they can significantly reduce the amount of calendar time required to assist a new teacher by teaching together with the teacher.

For an Extraverted teacher, co-teaching tends to be a more comfortable activity than it is for an Introverted teacher. Although experience can help Introverted teachers to be more comfortable, most I teachers, regardless of experience, seem to need time to adjust to the idea of co-teaching, as well as time to prepare for such a class.

New teachers also need to learn how to apply to the classroom the same principles of differentiation that the mentor applies to mentoring. The most crucial principles are: (1) teaching all students equally does not mean treating them the same, and (2) treating all students the same tends to result in unfair and unequal treatment because of learning style contrasts and other differences among them (Leaver 1998). Just as mentors need to learn to mentor in style, teachers need to learn to teach in style. In many cases, these concepts are alien to new teachers and take some time to assimilate. The co-teaching format has helped teachers learn these concepts in a realistic, concrete, and interesting way.

Modeling If mentors want teachers to use learner-centered instruction in the classroom, including showing sensitivity to style differences, the mentor must model this behavior in the supervisory relationship. Few of today's teachers were educated in learner-centered classrooms, so models are rare. Mentors most likely will have to break the mold that results in teachers teaching in the way that they were taught. Today's foreign language teachers were typically trained via Grammar-Translation, Audiolingual, or Cognitive Code methods that were clearly effective for many of them, and the natural instinct is to reproduce these methods in their own classrooms.

Mentors can model learner-centered instruction in the classroom. In their lesson plans, they can include activities for a wide variety of learners. When students experience learning difficulties, they can use learning style information to help with troubleshooting, and they can show new teachers how to do all these things.

Mentors can also model other very important attributes: risk-taking; courtesy; democracy; asking, not demanding; and empathy in place of apathy. Risk-taking is important not only in language learning but also in faculty teams where new teaching concepts are being implemented or in cutting-edge programs that are intended to remain cutting edge. Risk-taking, of course, comes most readily to CR teachers, especially NT-CR teachers. Other teachers may need the mentor's support, encouragement, and protection in order to be willing to take risks.

Even in modeling, mentors should be aware of style differences. Modeling alone may be enough to effect change for AR teachers. However, other teachers may need more explicit communication, requiring mentors to explain aspects of what is being modeled before and/or after the modeling.

Counseling

Counseling is more than a discussion with a mentee. Effective counseling requires planning and rehearsing, as well as actually conducting the counseling session.

Planning Planning counseling sessions should include not only the topics to be addressed but also the attitude to be taken: calm, firm, or tentative, among a wide variety of choices. The last (tentative) attitude sometimes works well in removing the walls built by some kinds of difficult teachers, especially F teachers, who, by nature, want to help people. Reversing the relationship so that, by complying with the mentor's request, the new teacher clearly does a service for the mentor can seem to put that teacher in control, remove defensive barriers (when one is taking the offensive, one does not need a fortress), and gain the cooperation needed for team work.

Part of planning also involves determining when to conduct the counseling sessions. When problems occur, Impulsive mentors, who tend to think and act simultaneously, usually want to solve them immediately. They rush into a counseling session with the teacher, which can make the problem worse, not better, especially if the teacher is Reflective, i.e., thinks before acting. Reflective mentors, on the other hand, usually put space between the time a problem occurred and the scheduling of the counseling session. If the time is reasonably short and used for the purpose of reflection and psychological preparation by the teacher and planning by the mentor, the time is well-spent. Often, though, too much time passes because Reflective mentors are preparing psychologically, and the teacher is unaware of the problem. By the time the problem gets addressed, the details have been forgotten. For that reason, Reflective supervisors can sometimes unfairly get the reputation of being unwilling to take action when needed.

Rehearsing Associated with planning is rehearsing. Controlling the emotions released when one's "buttons" have been pressed by mentee reactions is accomplished more easily when the counseling session is not the first place that the mentor encounters these things. Rehearsing with a colleague or friend of the same personality type or cognitive style as the teacher can ensure the smooth conduct of difficult counseling sessions.

Conducting the Session In spite of good planning and conscientious rehearsing, counseling sessions that do not take into account style differences can quickly disintegrate—or worse, harm the mentor-mentee bond. Extraverts and Impulsives need to give Introverts and Reflectives time to respond. Productive silence is okay. Js need to allow Ps to present a plan of action at a later date if a plan is needed to improve teaching. Holistic mentors need to provide details and be prepared for questions that may seem nit-picking. T mentors need to be psychologically prepared for the emotions of F mentees, and so on and so forth. Counseling sessions conducted in style can be both productive and satisfying.

Evaluation

Mentors usually have dual roles: development and evaluation. These are not antagonistic functions. Rather, evaluation provides guidance in determining development activities and assesses their effectiveness.

Unfortunately, all too often mentors find evaluation uncomfortable. This attitude is frequently the result of unpleasant experiences in evaluating and being evaluated. However, if evaluation is done in accordance with style and through the separation of formative and summative forms of evaluation, it can be a positive force in a teacher's professional life and in the mentor-mentee relationship.

Both formative and summative evaluations provide the opportunity for mentoring but in very different ways. Formative evaluation brings out coaching traits in a mentor, while summative evaluation brings out analytic and diagnostic traits. Formative evaluation, the purpose of which is to foster growth and improvement, and summative evaluation, the purpose of which is to assess, rate, and possibly reward or punish, should always be implemented separately. Stanley and Popham (1988) emphasize this point, arguing: "Many administrators who have been thrust into the formative-summative evaluator role will protest that they can, having 'earned the trust' of their teachers, carry out both teacher evaluation functions simultaneously, [but] they are deluding themselves" (p. 59). Trying to save time in this way cheats the teacher of the range of mentoring (and time) he or she has a right to expect from a mentor.

Style differences play an important role in the conduct of both kinds of evaluations, and accommodation of individualized needs can make evaluating new teachers more comfortable and effective. It can be difficult, for example, to evaluate NTs because while they are their own most severe critics, they do not readily accept the mentors' authority to judge them based solely on positional authority. The mentor must have earned respect for the NT teacher to accept the mentor's judgment. F teachers can be devastated by negative elements in evaluations, especially if T mentors fail to sandwich the negative elements between positive elements. AS and SJ teachers, especially those who are atomistic, may want more details than a holistic NT mentor, even with the best of intentions, may be able to provide. (After all, to provide details, one has to notice them, and noticing details is *not* the strong suit of holistic NTs.) Knowing the style-related preferences of mentees helps mentors take the steps to ensure a smooth rating process and not be surprised at the end.

Formative Evaluation While positively intended, formative evaluation is often seen as negative. For that reason, reframing the evaluation in positive terms is essential. Positive motivation wields great power, whereas negative emotions can shut down working memory (Goleman 1995). Pressing further at that point is ineffective.

How does one deal with negative emotions when they appear? First, one should not expect a rational response. Few new teachers can be fully rational at the outset when approached with a list of deficiencies in their performance; the threat to their ego and to their sense of security is too great, especially if they are NTs. So the most logical thing a mentor can do is to accept whatever response is given. Second, one should wait out the response. Maybe in a day or week the teacher will be able to approach the evaluation with less negative emotion. Therefore, setting a future date for further discussion can help, especially for Reflective and Introverted teachers. (It can also have the opposite effect on Impulsive, Extraverted teachers, who may use that time to marshal a rebuttal.) An important part of formative evaluation is self-evaluation. Teachers who carry out "reflective teaching" (keeping journals, monitoring, taping/observing their own behaviors, and assessing the success of various techniques and activities) are more apt to show continuous improvement than teachers who rely exclusively on student and mentor feedback. Teachers who are less defensive with regard to constructive suggestions for the improvement of teaching practices tend to practice reflective teaching; these teachers are more likely to carry on a productive and insightful dialogue with mentors at counseling sessions.

Summative Evaluation Of all the mentor-mentee relationships, summative evaluation tends to be the most stressful and can lead to acrimony and a breakdown in the relationship. Before improvement in teaching can be expected—and even highly experienced and successful teachers can be expected to improve—teachers need to know program goals (important for NT teachers), work requirements (important for AS teachers), and performance standards (important for SJ teachers). Troubled programs frequently experience lack of success not because of teacher or administrator incompetence but because clear mission statements, written goals, and published performance standards—the objective criteria that make possible the fair management of all teachers—are missing. Summative evaluation is much less threatening and easier to defend when everyone knows the criteria for success. Rating, rewarding, and conducting formative discussions and guiding the development of new teachers in accordance with these standards make mentoring and implementation of summative evaluations much easier. Further, establishing consistent expectations for classroom visits and for interpretation, use, and discussion of data collected during observations significantly reduces perceived threat for nearly any type of teacher. Allowing teacher input to the evaluation ensures both a more accurate evaluation and a more effective one.

Support of Personal Growth

As in learning to teach, personal development activities are more effective when they are carried out in accordance with style. Sending CS teachers to off-site, experiential workshops may be the best option for them, whereas AR teachers may prefer to observe successful peers on-site. Sending Introverted Thinkers to the library or their own classrooms for research is as effective as working directly together with Extraverted Sensing individuals, but the opposite combinations are apt to fail. Explaining the reasons for the difference in treatment is sometimes far less difficult than mentors think. New teachers frequently know their style preferences, at least on a subconscious level, and will instinctively choose the mode that works best for them. Talking about these matters openly and forthrightly can help the teachers and the mentor.

Professional Skills Many mentors forget that personal development includes career preparation and enhancement. There is a tendency to focus on short-term goals—the teaching requirements of the current institution and how to meet those requirements—leaving long-term goals forgotten. Rifkin (2000) suggests that long-term goals are essential to the formation of a future professoriate. Covey (1991) explains the existence of this often overlooked, critical set of activities as being lost through improper time management that puts urgent-not-important tasks ahead of important-not-urgent considerations.[11] Teaching a TA to perform well in the current classroom, to paraphrase the old Chinese proverb, feeds him or her for a day. Helping the TA to build a foundation in second language acquisition feeds him or her for a lifetime. Mentors who take the role of mentoring seriously should consider the long-term view. The real workplace is full of examples in which mentors have made a significant difference in the lives of their new teachers by being serious about their mentoring roles.

There is a caveat, however. In helping teachers with professional development, mentors should avoid placing their own biases into their mentees' minds. Mentors have a great deal of influence, and they must take care to use it wisely and provide balanced counsel rather than biased advice.

Empowerment Although authoritarianism is a common approach of new mentors, it can be found among some experienced mentors as well. It might well spring from the dichotomy that created much discussion in the 1990s: training or education as the goal of teaching. In our view, there is no discussion. Teachers, whose duties are far from mindless, repetitive, and stimulus-dependent, do not need training. What they do need, no matter how experienced, is continuing education, as does every professional, beginning with the would-be professional—the student in the classroom. To that effect, we note and underscore the words of Lalande:

> It dare not be forgotten that the mission of academia involves far more than training people to perform a skill—it is to educate our students, to make them sensitive to the power and beauty of the word, to contribute to the processes of critical thinking and cultural understanding, to liberate them from ethnocentric mindsets, and to invite them on and equip them for a journey of lifelong learning and growth (1991, p. 18).

If mentors want teachers to facilitate classroom activity, i.e., to educate students, then they need to model facilitation by educating and empowering teachers, allowing them the opportunity for critical thinking, liberating them from ethnocentric and egocentric mindsets, and equipping them for a lifelong journey of personal and professional growth.

Many ways exist to empower teachers. One is to give teachers a say in team matters. Another is to give them a say in choice of method or teaching practices (where that is appropriate and possible). To empower new teachers, mentors sometimes have to change their instinctive forms of support. When a new teacher brings a problem, called a "monkey" (Blanchard, Oncken, and Burrows 1990), to a mentor and the mentor promises to take care of the problem, the mentor has just taken on the care and feeding of the teacher's monkey. Given enough monkeys, the mentor quickly becomes a zookeeper, and teachers remain unempowered, with only one way to take care of their sick monkeys: bring them to the mentor. Rather than promising to take care of a problem, the wise mentor assists the teacher in figuring out how to take care of the problem on his or her own. In other words, the mentor shows the teacher how to feed or heal the monkey. With time, teachers working with monkey-free mentors arrive with a sick monkey, a description of symptoms, and some suggested cures. Helping a teacher select a cure is much easier for a mentor than running a monkey hospital.

When mentoring in style, the ways in which teachers, both experienced and new, are empowered depend on their style differences. CR-NTs need freedom and authority to pursue self-generated, innovative ideas. CS teachers need instructions and examples of how to do things on their own. AS teachers need templates as guidelines. AR teachers need the opportunity to observe how empowered teachers work.

Once empowered, teachers need support. Even seemingly self-directed teachers on the fast path to fame and glory need a cheerleader in their corner in times of insecurity and difficulty. Teachers who are attending school at the same time that they are teaching need periodic affirmation that the accumulation of experience and education will be worth the time, effort, and stress. New teachers need their mentors even in failure. In fact, they need them most in times of failure. Empowered employees who feel the support of their mentors are more likely to take the kinds of risks that are needed for effective teaching.

Remembering (or recognizing when) to support teachers comes least naturally to TJ mentors. Highly task-oriented, they sometimes forget that there are other motivations and other ways of providing support than working together on task completion. NT mentors, too, sometimes become irritated with the "neediness" of FP teachers (who want emotional support) and AS or CS teachers (who want informational support). Understanding the source of the neediness can go far in alleviating irritation.

The time invested in empowering mentees is worthwhile. Supportive mentors are frequently the first to receive invitations to graduations and award ceremonies. They are also usually the first to hear about good news in the mentees' life, and they are likely to be thanked in a dozen different ways from time to time. Clearly, teachers desire, need, and appreciate a mentor's support.

Mentoring the Group

While mentoring the group does, indeed, begin with mentoring the individual teacher, there are some aspects of mentoring the group that are unique at a program level. These include building teams, moderating organizational culture, building trust, building tolerance, and developing clear communication.

Team Building

Team building is an important part of mentoring, since teachers will nearly always work in some sort of team environment. At first, the team might be a group of TAs. Later, the team might be colleagues in a foreign language department. Even supervisors work on some sort of team. Therefore, learning to be a team player is an important aspect of any new teacher's development.

New teachers learn more about being good team players when they join a supportive team that exhibits esprit de corps. When the mentor is the supervisor, building a collaborative team is incumbent upon the supervisor-mentor.

Moderating Organizational Culture

Every institution has an organizational culture, and new teachers assimilate more rapidly when there is a match between their values and organizational values—or when they are helped to accommodate to the dominant organizational culture while making a contribution in keeping with personal style preferences. Successful accommodation requires the supervisor-mentor, who understands the organizational culture and the institutional goals, to moderate that culture such that it can be understood and accepted by new teachers who may find it alien at first.

For T teachers, assimilation into a culture whose ideas conflict with their own can be very difficult, unless the mentor is open to challenges to theory and practices and prepared to demonstrate, as well as cite research that indicates, the feasibility and desirability of various aspects of the language program design. This is especially true for T teachers new to the organization but not new to teaching, e.g., former high school teachers who are now doctoral candidates.

Building Trust

Teams are built on common goals and trust. The common goal in a teaching situation is clear: effective teaching that results in student learning and satisfaction. To the extent that teachers work together, the overall quality of teaching programs is improved. Students feel the coordination that comes from team teaching, and teachers benefit from shared resources and ideas.

The sources of trust and the means of building trust, especially when the language department is large, are less clear. Trust requires willingly suspending suspicion and switching defensive mechanisms into the "off" position. For that to happen, teachers must feel that management is on their side. New teachers joining a team where trust is high are more likely to set aside disbelief than are those joining teams where trust is low. Trust is rarely built as a team activity. It is constructed in different ways with different teachers. For example, F teachers often need evidence of supervisor loyalty and kindness. T teachers need evidence that their mentors are knowledgeable in the fields of foreign language education and second language acquisition. CR teachers need to know that they can fly away with the full comfort that comes from knowing that the nest will be available, should they want to return home. CS instructors need to know that there is a human instruction manual at their disposal, should they need it.

Building Tolerance

Tolerance must also be established among teachers on a team, and for that reason, it is important for teachers to understand style differences. Such understanding builds tolerance. Understanding style differences has another advantage: style categories provide labels for discussing conflicts without labeling individual teachers "good" or "bad."

Some of the most difficult team-building situations occur on cross-cultural teams. In the foreign language field, many, if not most, teams are cross-cultural in that they unite native speakers of the students' native language with native speakers of the target language. In some departments, this combination can lead to discrimination against the minority, which is, in a number of departments of the commonly taught languages, the non-native speaker (Valdés 1991). The mentor in such situations must set the tone for non-discrimination, promote productive disagreement, and bring humor into the workplace.

Non-Discrimination New teachers joining teams where there is zero tolerance for discrimination are more apt to find the kinds of support that they need in their early attempts at teaching. They are also less likely to exhibit discrimination in their own relationships on any basis: religion, ethnicity, gender, or style.

Productive Disagreement Appropriate disagreement can be very productive. "A good leader or team facilitator makes sure that enough friction is created to produce the sparks that make for a productive meeting" (Dichter 1987, p. 112). Disagreement, however, is only productive when accepted by all parties and when no repercussions occur for opinions that do not match those of the majority or of the mentor. In facilitating disagreements, mentors should be aware that different personality types react differently to arguments. NT teachers readily enter into disagreements with colleagues and just as readily walk away from them when finished. They are less likely to personalize negative comments arising from disagreements than are other types. NF teachers, on the other hand, seek harmony. Therefore, disagreements are unsettling to them, and they may need encouragement to enter into them. F teachers are quick to personalize disagreements and often hold grudges for long periods of time when they do not recognize the source of the anger.

Use of Humor Disagreement works best when balanced by humor and fun. People should want to come to work in the morning. In well-managed, well-mentored programs, teachers receive so much satisfaction and enjoyment at work that they stay late, often without noticing the time, and get involved with extracurricular activities, even leading them. In such programs, students are likely to flourish because their teachers are flourishing—because the supervisor-mentor has set the example for them and has made the workplace exciting, rewarding, and fun.

Developing Clear Communication

Communication is a complex issue. An open door policy not only helps foster communication, but it also allows the manager to get to know faculty members better. However, even in the most open relationships that have tremendous rapport, communication still fails from time to time. Making communication explicit and sending appropriate signals can do much to prevent communication errors.

Some mentors do not spend enough time to ensure that teachers have really understood what has been communicated. An explicit approach to communication takes time, but failure to communicate ultimately takes even more time. What kinds of things need to be communicated explicitly? CS teachers need explicit instructions. NT and CR teachers need explicit rationales. SJ and AS teachers need specific rules, content, and deadlines. SPs need to know the limits of choices that are available or permitted.

An important part of good communication is sending accurate signals. Not all these signals, however, are verbal. We have many ways to communicate: words, actions, body language, and presence.

Communicating with Words One of the most obvious ways in which we send signals is by words. Teachers, supervisors, and mentors tend to choose words that reflect their own styles. SJ teachers use words like "should," "ought," and "must." SP teachers use words like "choice," "may," and "flexible." NT teachers use words like "challenge," "analyze," and "goal," and NF teachers use words like "fun," "collaboration," and "serve." In some ways, teachers with different styles are speaking different dialects, and the style-aware mentor ends up being an interpreter.

Communicating with Actions Actions and behaviors are sometimes more powerful signals than words. Actions include both what mentors do and what they choose not to do (or forget to do). One T mentor was astonished to learn that the source of a teacher's newly developed hostility was a forgotten packet of lesson plans that the teacher had prepared on her own and had proudly handed to the mentor, who put it into his overflowing in-box and did not see it for weeks. The message to the teacher was clear: the mentor did not like the lesson plans. Further, being an F, the teacher personalized that message: the mentor did not value her efforts. He could at least have acknowledged the time and energy she spent on the project. There was a happy ending in this case. The mentor learned about the lost materials, found them, and made his comments—along with his apologies.

Communicating with Body Language Body language sends signals, too. Mentors who say that they are open to other opinions and ideas but listen with their arms and legs crossed are sending mixed signals. Unfortunately, body language tends to speak louder than words. One of us used to complete paperwork while talking to her staff when she worked as a dean at one institution. A J who displays the polyactivity typical of Ps, she did not even notice that she was doing this, but she had apparently done it for months. When a new associate dean reported in, he and the assistant dean met with her to discuss the status of programs and the roles of members of the dean's staff, and, as usual, she simultaneously completed her ever-present paperwork, an activity that could obviously be interpreted as rude or as denigrating the significance of the conversation. The new associate dean shot a questioning look at the assistant dean, who explained, "Yes, sir, she processes paperwork while she listens and talks, but she clearly also hears and understands everything we say; we've tested her on several occasions." Needless to say, she now keeps her in-box out of reach so that she does not accidentally multi-task in the presence of others. The message sent was not the one she wanted received.

Communicating with Presence Even presence (or absence) can be a signal. When mentors are present, they signal that a task and the people involved with it are important. When they are absent, they send the opposite signal, that the planned activities are not important enough for the mentor to spend time on them. In one extremely large and unwieldy program that one of us managed (nearly 150 teachers and support staff), significant problems with organizational communication became quickly apparent when she first tried to meld teaching teams from several different programs into one unified new program. Therefore, she worked out a week-long training program on organizational communication with institutional staff trainers, put senior teachers in charge at all levels of administration, including as acting dean, and spent 40 hours with the 15 managers undertaking training. The fact that she, as the upper management representative and mentor, was there for the entire training and planning seminar made a significant difference in developing an effective communication plan for the organization. Such presence and visibility come easier to Extraverts than to Introverts, who often must force themselves to go out among their mentees on a regular basis.

Conclusion

Given the positive results reported by language program directors who routinely mentor in style, we encourage all such directors to consider gradually incorporating some or all of the presented concepts into the way they approach the act of mentoring. In using style information to determine how to proceed with mentoring each teacher, some program directors (usually the Sensing types) prefer to have teachers first take one of the several available style inventories and then to discuss the validity and nature of the results with the individual teacher, since results can sometimes be influenced by non-style factors. Other program directors (usually the Intuitive types) prefer to observe teachers and then to discuss their perceptions of styles with individuals. Both approaches work.

For style-mediated programs, we further recommend that style terminology, or "type talk," become part of the professional life of the program. Talking about style differences with the teaching team, building shared terminology that is non-discriminatory in its characterization of personal differences, and providing an individualized approach to mentoring while also providing for the mentoring of the entire team of teachers in the program are important aspects of true mentoring in style.

McNeil (1987) suggests that the best business managers make choices for the long term, not for the short term. The same principle is equally important in academic language programs. Making choices for the long term means developing new teachers in ways that empower them and allow them to surpass the mentor. It means looking beyond the difficulty of the moment to the desired goal and determining how to reach that goal. In all cases, long-term goals are likely to be met only if the task of mentoring is considered a high priority duty.

The experience of the authors and others indicates that long-term (and short-term) goals are met more readily and with greater satisfaction when mentoring is done in style. The problem, to date, with mentoring advice and research is a focus on teachers as collectives and on only those individual variables (such as motivation and competence) that are directly related to a teaching goal. In reality, what is needed is an understanding that people are unique entities who bring individualized packages of variables to the workplace, the classroom, and the teaching team. Many of these variables may not be directly related to a teaching goal, but they do indeed have an impact on teaching, personal growth, team spirit, and effectiveness. Therefore, effective mentoring depends on putting people first and concepts second. Mentoring in style gives the mentor a toolbox of instruments to use when the platitudes fail.

Notes

1. Magnan does address style in one sentence. However, she speaks only of the problems style differences between students and TAs may create for new TAs.

2. This field of inquiry has been called socionics, a term that is better known in Europe than in the United States. The socionics movement, whose publications first appeared in Latvia, uses Jungian typology for political and sociological analysis (Bulakov and Bojko 1992). More information can be found on the Internet: www.socionics.com.

3. The MBTI, which can be obtained from Consulting Psychologists Press and is administered by a trained psychologist (although there are many similar tests online, and there is even a $3 online version of the MBTI itself), determines each of the dimensions for each respondent. These dimensions result in a four-letter type (such as ENTJ). These combinations yield a total of 16 possible personality types. Keirsey and Bates (1988) determined that certain two-letter combinations, called temperaments, were the most salient for work (and other) interpersonal relationships. They labeled these "artisans" (SP), "rationals" (NT), "idealists" (NF), and "guardians" (SJ).

4. The cognitive styles discussed here are only a few of the suggested constructs that have appeared in recent years. Other commonly known styles include multiple intelligences (Gardner 1999), a Learning Styles Inventory that differentiates among styles associated with concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation, somewhat reminiscent of the Gregorc information acquisition categories (Kolb 1985), and a construct based on the division of Kolb's four categories into left-brain and right-brain dimensions, yielding eight styles (McCarthy 1997). Messick and Associates (1976) provides an overview to a wide range of cognitive styles; while this volume appears dated, it is not and is one of the few works to describe the commonly known differences, as well as lesser-known concepts, such as sharpeners (those who concentrate on differences) and levelers (those who concentrate on likenesses). Another overview, more recent and somewhat less comprehensive, was published by Sternberg (1997), who, in addition to his own theory of three kinds of intelligence, has incorporated

a number of cognitive style concepts into his work.

5. Hemispheric distinctions have two aspects: the physiological (in which the left hemisphere controls the right side of the body and vice versa; physiologically, one of the hemispheres tends to be dominant, creating such phenomena as preference for the use of one hand over the other) and the metaphoric (in which preferences for certain kinds of learning—verbal versus image, morphology versus intonation, language versus music—are assigned to the left or right hemisphere, in some ways paralleling physiology but used in a metaphoric sense). In our experience, this latter, cognitive difference is significant for language learners, but less so for mentor-mentee relationships.
6. This distinction proposes that synthetic learners use pieces to create a new model (or new whole), a process of assembling information (as in using examples to figure out a rule). For them, learning is construction. Analytic learners disassemble the whole into its parts in order to understand it better (as in studying the rule, then practicing it with examples). For them, learning is a process of reconstruction. This distinction can have an influence on any interaction where new information is being exchanged.
7. The global-analytic difference, one of the most persistent in the realm of cognitive styles, is a perplexing one because this difference is not a dichotomy. A global preference refers to perception, and an analytic preference refers to processing. For this reason, Ehrman and Leaver (1997) contend that there are two overlapping constructions within this dimension, the global (perceiving a wooded area as a forest) versus something they label particular (perceiving a wooded area as a collection of different kinds of trees), and the synthetic (process of assembly) versus the analytic (process of disassembly).
8. Each of these domains contains ten components that together represent the majority of cognitive styles found in contemporary literature. Thus, the E&L Construct seeks to simplify the rather chaotic conditions that mark the current study of cognitive styles. Correlational studies have been conducted on more than 800 students, validating the construct, which is still in the process of study and refinement.
9. Leaver's published research concentrated on cerebral dominance, one factor in determining the dominance of synopsis or ectasis for learning, in students and teachers of Russian and Ukrainian at the Foreign Service Institute only. This research grew out of informal surveys collected from students in a variety of languages (German, French, Spanish, and Russian) at the University of Pittsburgh in 1982–1983, showing essentially the same pattern: good language students tended to be right-hemisphere dominant and the majority of language students beyond first year courses, i.e., those who "liked" language study and voluntarily chose more of it, tended to be right-hemisphere dominant.
10. Other possible styles include gustatory and olfactory, which could have great meaning in elementary grades and even higher, but which educational institutions typically ignore and which do not play much of a

role in mentoring. It is interesting to note, however, that some of the best examples of mentoring came from the temples of ancient Egypt and involved training and developing of all of the senses in the persons being mentored.

11. In Covey's time management system, there are four categories of activities in any organization: urgent-important (Type 1), not urgent-important (Type 2), urgent-not-important (Type 3), and not-urgent-not-important (Type 4). Of the four categories, Category 2, in Covey's opinion, is the most critical for long-term program success.

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Getting to Know the Face in the Mirror: Reflection in Practice for Teachers and Teacher Educators

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Introduction

Until relatively recently, foreign language teacher education was painfully prescriptive. Pedagogical lists of what to do and how to do it were readily available; these lists, nonetheless, largely ignored the conceptual development of teachers and their voices. Since the early nineties, the field has witnessed a trend in research on teachers' voices, beliefs and practices, and their narratives (Freeman and Richards 1996; Guntermann 1993; Richards and Nunan 1990). This research has been variously labeled as collaborative research, teacher research, and action research. It is mainly qualitative or ethnographic in nature and views reality through the lenses of phenomenology, heuristics, and often feminism. Inevitably, reflection, meaning-making, and interpretation become essential processes of this research, and the representation of self (voice) and other (dialogic discourse), its main objectives.

Over the years, my experiences as a French teaching assistant, a French teacher, a foreign language acquisition specialist, a qualitative researcher, and a language program coordinator have brought me into close contact with the community of second language learners, student teachers, administrators, friends, and colleagues in my own and other fields. During this time, I have had numerous opportunities to reflect on aspects of my personal and professional self and to examine the road that I have traveled thus far.

As in a hall of mirrors where one sees infinite reflections of the self in an interplay of shade and light—at times growing in size or shrinking, at others distorted, sometimes eliciting laughter, at other times a compelling desire to turn away—the process of reflection is for many of us fraught with doubt, uncertainty, and contradiction.

Exploring one's present and past experiences as a means of coming to know oneself is a classic phenomenological goal. However, as Brunner (1994) points out, this is not enough:

> It's true; we may come to know something about ourselves, but we may not necessarily know ourselves entirely. Simply an examination of our beginnings (and even compared with present experiences and circumstances) may not necessarily take into account the various pushes and pulls of society or the ways in which we come to see ourselves with and against different social communities, positions and relations of power . . . We may examine the mirror reflection, in other words, without examining its underside or backside. Put another way, we do not see through the looking glass, and even if we do, who we see changes continually (p. 19).

As Bakhtin (1981) has taught us, all single voices are abstracted from dialogues while we make meaning of ourselves. Dialogization occurs when a word, discourse, language, or culture becomes relativized, deprivileged, aware of competing definitions for the same things. Undialogized language is authoritative or absolute. Dialogism assumes that language is not a neutral medium that is easily used to serve the speaker's intentions; it is invaded and inhabited at all times by the intentions of others. Appropriating language for one's own purposes and ideas, according to Bakhtin, is "a difficult and complicated process" (cited in Cazden 1989, p. 122). In the context of teacher education, if the novice teacher engages in a process of reflection, so does the teacher educator. Sometimes they exchange their reflections with each other. Then, after that, each one makes sense of what the other said and the meaning of what they themselves said in light of what the other said. Apprentice teachers learn to become authors of their own words beyond mouthing the discourse of the textbook or imitating the professor (teacher educator). And since the research process—both self reflection (monologue) and reflection with another (dialogue)—is tainted by position, knowledge, and power, it is easy to sidestep reporting conflicts between teachers and students. It is easy to bring to light new and presumably more humane and emancipatory pedagogies that question the clearly oppressive, prescriptive, and controlling nature of teacher education. The question, however, focuses on whether this liberation is real or merely old wine in new bottles.

Laying the Groundwork

The study reported on in this paper, hereafter referred to as the Reflection Study, took place within the department of Foreign Languages at the University of Toledo. The department offers majors in French, German, and Spanish, as well as a Master's program. As the language program coordinator of the French section, I supervise approximately ten teachers including adjuncts, part-time instructors, and graduate teaching assistants. I teach the methods course, a core requirement for graduate assistants. This course is offered across languages to graduate students in French, Spanish, and German.

The potential study group consisted of all five students enrolled in the methods course (FREN 517: Teaching Colloquium) in Winter 1997 and myself. The study period extended from Winter 1997 through Fall 1997. The eventual study group consisted of one graduate student enrolled in the course and myself. The aim of the study was to engage in a collaborative action research project with volunteer graduate teaching assistants. Specifically, the volunteer graduate students collaborating in the project were to (1) select (and justify the selection of) an aspect of their teaching, (2) determine goals in relation to the selected aspect of teaching, (3) project plans for change, (4) execute change, (5) record results of executed change in plans, and (6) evaluate the initial goal(s) and results thereof. The collaborating.coordinator (this author) aimed to examine and learn about the nature of the process the graduate teaching assistants underwent in initiating and carrying out an action research project. In other words, it was my goal to learn about their process of learning. The methodology adopted was primarily qualitative in nature, including long interviews, observations, and informal conversations with the participants, journals, and video and audio tapes of conversations and classroom teaching.

The roots of the study upon which this paper is based are embedded in research I conducted in 1995 (Dhawan 1997) in which I explored the beliefs, actions, and reflections of university level foreign language teaching assistants within a phenomenological framework, hereafter referred to as the Beliefs Study. The results of the Beliefs Study indicated that all the TAs "demonstrated strong beliefs in their ability to improve and develop as foreign language teachers" (p. 345). The need for approval from external sources (usually coordinator or professor) about the quality of their teaching emerged as a significant issue. Informants also demonstrated a desire for ownership of their classrooms and their teaching. There was an effort to move away from the need for feedback and reassurance from external sources, and toward a self-assessment of their teaching, suggesting increased independence in their work as foreign language teachers.

While the Beliefs Study was a good first attempt at listening to teachers' voices, I concluded that a subsequent study was needed to allow teachers more authorship—i.e., more autonomy for determining the goals, design, and analysis of the study. For the next study—the Reflection Study—I turned to the literature on action research (Elliot 1991; Johnson 1992; Zuber-Skerritt 1996), as well as teacher research (Bailey and Nunan 1996; Freeman and Richards 1996; Kinchloe 1991, 1993; Richards and Nunan 1990). The benefits to teachers of both engaging in reflection on their own practice and researching their own classrooms are well documented in the educational literature (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin 1995; Lambert 1989). Research that encourages change is not based on the simple transmission of knowledge but on a model of inquiry research (Beyer 1984; Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1990; Hargreaves and Fullan 1992). When teacher research is used to create meaningful opportunities for growth based on their lived experience (van Manen 1990), it is now widely considered a critical component of teacher professional development.

In exploring the roles of language teachers as researchers of their own classrooms, Johnson (1992) points to the variety in perspectives about what teacher research is. She highlights Bissex's view of the classroom as a "learning laboratory," providing opportunities for conscious reflection for the teacher. She argues, however, that "this [perspective] differs little from how many [people] would define a good teacher as a reflective practitioner" (1992, p. 215). Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1990) define teacher research as "systematic and intentional inquiry carried out by teachers" (p. 3). They attempt to differentiate teacher research from good teaching. In both cases, teacher research, conducted alone or in collaboration with others, involves taking notice of and attempting to understand what occurs in the classroom, gathering and recording information from their own classrooms and institutional life, and then reflecting on what was learned. As Zuber-Skerritt (1996) points out, it represents the "ways of investigating professional experience which link practice and analysis of practice into a single, productive, continuously developing sequence . . ." (p. 14). Viewing it this way, scholars have suggested that teacher involvement in research is a significant contribution to knowledge, and they believe that it is an effective way to bridge the gap between theory and practice or the gap between the work of researchers and practitioners. Freeman (1996) argues that teachers' voices must be heard, and in order to hear their voices, the field must reconceptualize and expand its concept of research and its norms for research reporting.

While there already exists a substantial body of conceptual literature on action research and teacher research in the field, reports on actual endeavors in ESL and foreign language teacher research have started to come in only recently. For example, in presenting portraits of four different composition classes, Katz (1996) demonstrates how "knowledge is socially organized, formed and shaped by the participants in the exchange and by the context in which the exchange takes place" (p. 58). She argues that it is the teachers' interpretation of their classroom roles that is significant, not some externally defined method. Cummings' (1996) case study of twenty students in a writing class is a compelling example for our consideration. Her narrative describes the voices of the students in her classroom—the challenges they face, their hopes, and fears about their lives at large. In this course, where almost all students are near failing, she resorts to various techniques to teach them how to write, the principal one being how to relate their writing to their life. Francomano (1995) describes a teacher research project designed to motivate eighth grade Spanish students by using a Zapotec story. She spoke only Spanish in the classroom and investigated students' reactions to having Spanish-only lessons to explore the story. Her interviews indicated that students found the class more interesting and fun and that their language and communication skills increased.

The motivation to conduct the above teacher research project was fueled by a classroom concern or curiosity to explore a new technique; similarly, the idea for the Reflection Study emerged out of my reflections on my professional work. It originated from the results of the Beliefs Study. As a methods course instructor and as a language program coordinator, I wanted to introduce novice teachers eager to learn "how to teach" and "how to become good teachers" to the idea of reflection in teaching, the potential of making conscious pedagogical choices, and the notion of ownership of the process of learning to teach. As a researcher/collaborator, I wanted to gain insight into the reflective process the graduate teaching assistants underwent in conducting an action research project.

As mentioned earlier, the Reflection Study originated in a graduate level methods course I taught in the winter of 1997. Given the context of the results reported in the Beliefs Study as well as the literature on reflective teaching and teacher research, I did not want to approach the course from the prescriptive school that provided "to do" lists, i.e., how to teach writing, how to teach the subjunctive, and do's and don'ts for proficiency-oriented and communicatively-oriented foreign language teaching. Rather, I wanted to introduce students to foreign language teaching as a reflective practice, to heighten the students' awareness of their instructional practices, and to promote in them a feeling of ownership of their classes. This approach did not exclude discussions about methodology; in fact, the techniques used to teach a particular element became the starting point of our discussions in class. Students engaged in micro-teaching activities, received feedback from their peers, reflected on the activity and the feedback, and then recorded what they had learned from the process in their teaching journals. They particularly enjoyed this activity. They often re-worked their activities and materials for future use and added them to a portfolio (see Appendix B).

On similar lines—and herein lies the heart of the Reflection Study—I introduced the idea of conducting an action research project as one of the final term paper options (see Appendix C for a description of all three options). If students chose the action research option, they were to examine a specific aspect of their teaching, such as error correction, time management, or the integration of culture in their lessons. They would explore their elected area by means of materials development, research in the library, and most importantly, by means of self-evaluation and reflection. I emphasized that their research objectives should be focused on their teaching and how it related to the course goals, the students, and their professional growth over the quarter.

While the students delved into various aspects of who they were as foreign language instructors in their classrooms, my own goal was to examine and learn about the nature of the process they underwent to initiating and carrying out an action research project. Among other things, I wanted to study their outcomes for what they implied about my own role as coordinator. I met with them as a group to describe from my perspective what participation in an action research project would entail. Since none of them had heard the term before and they were unfamiliar with the concept, I started by providing them with a definition of action research. I also gave them examples of possible topics for investigation, highlighting that virtually anything related to their teaching was a viable topic and that reflection on that topic and how they related to it as practitioners was going to be of primary concern to us. I used the following definition offered by Zuber-Skerritt to introduce the concept:

> [Action research represents] the ways of investigating professional experience which link practice and analysis of practice into a single, productive, continuously developing sequence, and which link researchers and research participants into a single community of interested colleagues. It is about the nature of the learning process, about the process of attempting to have different thoughts about similar experiences, and about the relationship between particular experiences and general ideas (1996, p. 14).

Humble Beginnings

While in the beginning all five students enrolled in the course were enthusiastic to participate, eventually, for various reasons (lack of time, pursuit of another project that was less demanding on their time, etc.), only one graduate teaching assistant, Nigel, continued with the project. Nigel was a second-year student in the Master's program in French and had already taught for one semester. Below he describes his motivation to do teacher research:

> I've always felt that I need to ensure that I am helping my students to the best of my abilities; they take the highest priority for me. It is for this reason that I jumped at the chance to do a project concerning the teaching of a foreign language; to look at who I was as a teacher; to test new ideas; to try to find out where I was going with my professional career.

Nigel wanted to conduct a study on the use of realia in his classroom and record his students' responses to its introduction in his teaching. This is the rationale he provided for his study:

> For many foreign language students, the target language seems to exist only in the classroom and in the textbook. Once they leave the room, it no longer has a purpose. However, by the use of some sort of realia, be it a song in the target language, or some authentic object, the language becomes alive and students see that the material that they are learning really exists and is used everyday.

I learned in an ethnographic interview (taken from Spradley's [1979] methodology) in which Nigel recalled various events of his language learning experience that his interest in gaining his students' perspective on the use of realia was rooted in his own past—his high school where his teacher brought slides and other realia from his travels to France into the classroom.

> French was really boring at first and I did not quite know why. I realize now that it was because it was not meaningful to me in my everyday life. Later, I took classes where the teacher would bring in flyers, slides, radio recordings, etc. from France or Québec and would give them meaning . . . All of these items helped to bring the language to life and I started to enjoy French class again.

The project had humble beginnings. However, these beginnings were full of the same natural confusion and complexity that characterizes action research on a larger scale. The doubts Nigel had about engaging in the process were mostly rooted in anxiety related to the unknown—a common trait of someone who has never conducted research before. He was concerned about the time commitment, and also, I am persuaded, about the notion of working with his supervisor:

> Before beginning my project, I had several consultations with my professor and project advisor. In these meetings we discussed why I wanted to do a project, how and why I chose the topic I did, and what I would have to do to complete the project. I found myself having doubts about actually doing this. But later, I had a much better idea of what such a project would require me to do and how much time it would take.

While Nigel's choice of topic was of no consequence within the action research framework, I was concerned that his focus on preparing activities around realia and recording his students' reactions might distract him from the process of looking at himself. In fact, what I was aiming to have him focus on was the relation between using realia in the foreign language classroom and his evolution as a foreign language teacher. What (if any) implications did integrating realia into his lessons have on his instructional beliefs and practices? I wanted him to reflect not only about his teaching techniques and to try new ideas, but also, and more importantly, to reflect about engaging in such a process. Nigel's decision and its implications were part of the project, in fact, an integral part of the process as he moved forward with his self-defined goal.

Learning about Realia

Nigel started work on the realia project in the methods course (Winter 1997) and then continued working on it as an Independent Study (Spring 1997). During Winter 1997 (within the methods course final project option), Nigel recorded the development of his research questions regarding the use of realia and the framework for his study in a portfolio.

He recorded his work on realia in three chapters, opening with a rationale for his study. He included a description of one classroom activity without realia and contrasted it with two classroom activities using realia. He discussed the articles he had consulted for the realia project (Duquette et al. 1987; Kramsch 1993; Lutcavage 1992; Myers 1993). He also included papers on micro-teaching, journal notes regarding a videotape of his teaching, and reaction papers to the readings done in the methods course.

At the end of the winter quarter when I received Nigel's portfolio, I gave him a grade and suggestions for follow-up. Within the Independent Study in Spring 1997, Nigel first collected data via a written survey (see Appendix D) and subsequently followed up its results with student interviews (see Appendix E). He administered the survey to all 17 students in his class and conducted the follow-up interviews with three volunteers. As a second-year MA student, Nigel had no prior experience with research in second language acquisition and scant knowledge of qualitative inquiry methodology or how to form a research question. Learning about these things was part of the unfolding of the process of action research for Nigel. My weekly two to three hour long communication with Nigel revolved around realia, its definition, and the benefits and challenges associated with its use in a second language classroom. I guided him on how to start a project, get approval from the Office of Human Subjects for gathering data from his students, conduct interviews, and transcribe, code, and analyze the data.

Nigel developed the research instruments, a survey questionnaire and an open-ended interview, with my assistance and also received guidance for revising and implementing them. The questions from the survey questionnaire and interview are reproduced here for ease of reference.

Survey Questionnaire

1. How long have you studied French? (State if grade school, high school, or university)
2. What experience, if any, have you had with French outside of the classroom?
3. In the course of your French classes, what did you like and dislike about certain classes?
4. Which activities helped you the most in learning French? Which helped you the least? Why?
5. What aspects of French, if any, interest you? Which do not? Why?
6. What aspects of French do you feel are the most important to concentrate on when learning French?
7. If you could list one thing that would be the most beneficial in helping you to learn French, what would it be? Why?

Sample Questions for Student Interviews

1. What activities do you think are the most helpful to you in learning French?
2. What experience have you had with the French language outside of the classroom?
3. What do you think of the use of various materials we use in the classroom?
4. Does the use of certain materials aid in your understanding of a certain topic? Which ones? Why or why not?
5. Does the use of certain materials help to bring French language alive for you in any way? Why or why not?
6. What experience have you had with French or a foreign language before this class?
7. What kinds of activities did you do in your high school French class?

While the survey did not ask any direct questions about the potential benefits of realia in foreign language learning (to reduce the interviewer/researcher bias), questions 3, 4, 5, and 7 in general attempted to elicit such responses in an open-ended way. An examination of the survey responses indicated that ten out of seventeen students felt that the speaking skill is the most important aspect of learning French, and eleven stated that for them culture was the most interesting aspect of French. No mention of realia was made in the survey responses.

The interviews were designed to get much more specific information about a broad range of foreign language learning related issues from the students. The first interview focused on when students started their foreign language study and attempted to elicit a description of their first contact with a foreign language. The second interview included follow-up questions as well as new queries about their foreign language learning experience at the University of Toledo.

As he worked through the various layers of the research process, Nigel constantly reflected on the project: constructing a survey questionnaire, conducting interviews with the volunteer students, and synthesizing and analyzing the data gathered by making connections between what they reported and his own goals. The excerpt below is an example of such reflection.

> This [realia] was the heart of what I was trying to get to through the course of the interviews. I didn't bring this topic up during the

> interviews myself so I really feel that the information given concerning this subject was truthful . . . I believe that the information given to me was the way that the participants felt at the time of the interview . . . One activity that I was hoping would be mentioned was when I brought in French department store catalogues. I remember this activity as the best of all of the occasions when I brought realia into the classroom . . . we were discussing clothing and, even though this was something that interested a large percentage of the class, the book was very general in terms of the clothing discussed and students were becoming bored with it. The day I brought the catalogues into class, I could see some interest on the faces of some of the students. The activity involved putting the students into groups. I gave each group a catalogue or a sales flyer from a clothing store. I told them they were the parents of a set number of kids (I gave each group a certain number and a set amount of money, in francs) and told them that they had to buy clothes for their kids for going back to school. As soon as I passed out the materials, the students started looking through the ads with a lot of enthusiasm . . . I was really excited because they were showing a definite interest in the material. They were asking me questions to find out how to say different things in French. The students really seemed to be working well with each other and there was more interaction going on than I had ever seen before. During the interviews, this activity was mentioned. It was brought up by two out of three students. I was told that it was a positive activity and my hopes were met.

Below, Nigel shares a significant moment, resulting from his discovery of an emerging pattern (Lincoln and Guba 1985):

> Once I had transcribed both the interviews, I reread them several times in order to look for emerging patterns. It happened! As I was reading the old set of interviews, I saw things that I hadn't noticed before to be of any real importance. Before I go any further, I have to explain that, even though I had a goal in mind of the question on which I was trying to gain more insight—the question of realia in the classroom—I was open to other findings. As I read back through the interviews, I realized that there was an important pattern showing up; there was a connection between the students who like realia in the classroom as well as the use of French in the classroom. During the first set of interviews, the students were saying that the French classes that they had enjoyed the most, were those in which the teacher spoke mostly in French. Some of them had even referred to these classes as "fun." When I asked what they meant by fun, they would say that both the teacher and students spoke French in the classroom. I had been

> blind to this connection as it did not pertain to my initial project goal on realia. This discovery added a new dimension to my study. As I read further, I realized that these same students said that they enjoyed it when the teacher brought in authentic materials to the classroom. When asked about the use of realia, once again they said that this made the class more enjoyable. I started to believe that there was a pattern emerging. There seemed to be a definite link between the students who liked realia in the classroom and those who enjoyed speaking French in the classroom and also having the teacher speak French.

I learned about (1) Nigel's experiences with introducing realia in the classroom; (2) Nigel's experience with carrying out research in his classroom; (3) Nigel's reflections on the students' comments gained from the survey questionnaire and the interviews. Besides the story of Nigel's using realia in the classroom, there were other stories embedded in our conversations, videotaping, and discussions on classroom teaching that emerged as the research process unfolded. As we became aware of issues other than realia, we allowed them to become part of the dialogue and reflected on them, broadening the scope of our collaboration and its eventual analysis. Not all our reflections were similar. This *mise en abîme* of research questions, however, added depth and complexity to the process.

Reflections on Target Language Use

I observed that my role in this project changed constantly: coordinator, mentor, instructor, researcher, colleague. By revisiting my notes and our discussion transcripts, I noted that my research goals were being reframed. Viewed within the context of action research and reflective practice, my role as coordinator was being put into question.

For example, I observed Nigel teach in the classroom and noticed, in particular, his liberal use of English. Given my own belief in using the target language as the medium of instruction, I mulled over how to raise the issue with him. I was eager to protect his dignity while encouraging him to reflect on the issues related to target language use and to encourage change in his practice without threatening him. Aware of the power dynamic between Nigel and myself, I weighed the importance of Nigel reaching this awareness himself versus my calling his attention to areas that I wanted him to consider. I weighed his need for guidance versus autonomous decision making; I often acted intuitively. As I was to learn later, Nigel was already aware of his use of English. I learned to recognize that although individuals may have a certain belief about how they would like to teach, they may not know how to translate that belief into practice; drawing their attention to something of which they are already conscious might at best be presumptuous if not destructive.

> All the sources of information—my own beliefs, my coordinator's suggestion, as well as my students input—pointed in one direction: the use of the target language in the classroom was significantly related to a positive language learning experience. Yet, I was aware of using a considerable amount of English in the classroom.
>
> I believe that in order for my students to attain proficiency in French, they must be exposed to it as much as possible. This, however, does not mean that the target language should be used exclusively. The teacher should try different activities to make the lesson more comprehensible to the often bewildered looking students. If however, several attempts at trying to get the students to understand fail, the teacher should use the native language. Even though use of the target language is necessary for second language learning, its use is a block to learning instead of a help if the students are completely lost during an activity.

Nigel and I did not agree on some of the issues surrounding target language use. I would have preferred him to try to find alternatives to reverting to English in the classroom. Nigel, however, stood up for himself and his beliefs. It was clear that he had given thought to the question and had taken a stand on it. Admittedly, not everyone would agree with his decision or his reasoning. Regardless of the debate over target language use, however, few could argue with the fact that within the broader picture, this represented a step in the reflective inquiry process for Nigel—a step in the direction of gaining ownership of his instructional practice.

Nigel's Videotaping: Another Mirror

Another step in the process of reflection was the videotaping of his classes and the subsequent examination and analysis of the lessons. There are a couple of interesting threads to follow here. First, Nigel's reaction to using this tool for obtaining feedback about his students:

> As the quarter went on, the readings became more relevant. Throughout the quarter, I was given more and more instruction on how to complete the project. I was told about the different methods of collecting data and was given articles to read about all of them. Among these different methods was the process of video and audio taping of my French class. This method gave me the opportunity to see my

> different teaching methods in action. For example, when I videotaped an activity using realia in the classroom, I was able to get an outsider's view of how things went. I could see how the students reacted, especially since it is impossible for me to catch all of the reactions of the students while I am teaching. Watching these videos afterward was a real eye opener. There were times when I thought that students felt one way about something when, in fact, after watching the video, it seems that they reacted completely different to what I had thought. For example, I could see more easily when students seemed to be getting bored with an activity.

I had suggested that Nigel videotape himself, assuming that doing so would allow him see himself his teaching and provide a springboard for new ideas for classroom practice. Nigel took a slightly different stance on the use of this tool for reviewing himself in action:

> It is in the classroom that my views of teaching are put to the test. Yet, when I'm teaching, it's impossible to get a whole picture of how things are going. By videotaping my classes, I am able to see myself through the eyes of someone else, perhaps as my students see me. I am often afraid of watching these videos and am usually reluctant to play them, especially when someone else is watching them with me. I think the reason for this is that what I did during these classes is frozen in stone and cannot be changed. I like getting criticism about my teaching, so this reluctance bothers me. I hope that with increased viewing of these videos, I will become less apprehensive about seeing them. By not dwelling on the feeling that I can't change what was done in these classes, and by treating the viewing of the tapes as a way of improving future classes, I hope that I will be able to change my feelings about watching these videos. This process could help me to make changes in my teaching that will in turn, make my class more enjoyable for the students and make their time in class more beneficial to them.

Reflections: Collaboration across Power Lines

Nigel's and my agendas were quite different. As a graduate teaching assistant, Nigel was student-centered and was focused on improving his instructional practice. He felt that he needed to find ways to help sustain the motivation of his seemingly uninterested students. I functioned on two levels: at one level, for my own purposes, and at the other, with Nigel in mind. As a coordinator, a foreign language acquisition specialist, and a researcher, my motivation was to better understand how Nigel worked, to discuss with him his beliefs about foreign language teaching, to learn from our discussions about my own perspective as a professional, and to frame those perspectives in the light of collaboratively constructed knowledge. However, as Nigel's language program coordinator, as his methods course instructor, and as a professor engaged in research with a student, the situation was further complicated by the power I wielded over him. I increasingly realized the implications of Brunner's words; that any adequate program of teacher education or teacher research must begin with tough questions arising out of "a raced, classed, and gendered, self-critical, self-conscious awareness" (1994, p. 111) and must always include questions about knowledge, power, voices, and position.

I had observed Nigel teach and had written observation reports for him. In them, I had given him practical suggestions for improving some of his teaching techniques. He knew, albeit subconsciously, my biases and preferences. While I hoped that Nigel would assert his opinions and views and would engage me and challenge me, I also knew that that desire was embedded in some ill-defined, idealistic notion of a healthy tension of forces. In reality, I was perceived as the leader and in fact I did control the reins to a large extent. I was able to acknowledge this to myself quickly enough, but I doubt that the drive to push him in a certain direction ever left me. I knew I needed to let Nigel decide his own course of action for the project. Yet I was concerned that this interest might lead him away from looking at himself.

I was also distressed by the thought that what I had hoped was going to be an opportunity for dialogic inquiry for us might evolve into a lecture (if I were to tell Nigel what to do) that would haunt me for the duration of the study. The titles "professor" and "Dr." reinforced the assumption of a certain knowledge base and skills, and both differentiated and distanced me from Nigel. I was uncertain about how long the research would last and whether Nigel would be able to play catch-up before being overwhelmed by the desire to give up. I realized that in order to rationalize, in my mind, the pursuit of our distinct agendas, I needed to be patient and less selfish and to modify my own research agenda in order to acknowledge and validate his. I needed to slow down and get in sync with Nigel and fine-tune my expectations. One of the most challenging tasks for me was to suspend judgment about him. While we were both liable to judge the other, it was unlikely that I would receive evaluative comments from Nigel.

Ambiguity, Uncertainty, Complexity: More Reflections

Despite its benefits, as Burton (1997) points out, the idea of engaging in teacher inquiry can be initially intimidating. One may encounter initial resistance (Bell 1997) that can be tracked on various levels: the inclination of many teachers to be student-focused, such that examining their own practice may be perceived as less valuable to their student-focused objectives; the inclination to perceive research as something graduate students and professors do whose product is irrelevant to their daily classroom needs; practical concerns for time and energy output versus the benefits. As Nigel reflected in his journal:

> In the methods course . . . I was surrounded by other students who were considering doing such a project themselves. I had never done anything like this before and it was scary at times not knowing what to really expect.

On another occasion, he wrote:

> The new school year had started and we had not had a meeting since the beginning of the summer. During the summer, I admit that there were times when I thought this project would never be finished. I had never worked on a project of this type or size before. It was really a bit scary at times. Being the only student doing this project made me feel like I was the only one going through some of this for the first time. But, I kept going and things seemed to finally be taking shape.

Despite the training and preparation, Nigel's account indicated that at times he found his role challenging. This was partly due to his lack of experience and confidence in managing a research project. Over the course of the year, however, engaging in such a project proved both fruitful and relevant.

Looking Inward

The following excerpt from Nigel needs little introduction.

> Trying to look deep inside of you is something that requires a lot of time, effort, openness, and honesty. I found this to be one of the hardest things I have ever done. I don't just mean in terms of work load; the basic understanding of what I am doing can become a difficult task in itself. As I was doing this study, the path would become very blurred at times making it difficult to know where to turn next. There were times when I was doing so many different things at once, that everything would become muddled and I couldn't tell one part of the study from another. As I became more involved with my project on realia, I started to focus all my attention on it and was drifting further and further away from my real objective, that of self-evaluation. Now that the realia project is over, I am getting back on track as to what I am actually doing

> and what my goal is. The goal of this study is what has been the hardest thing to keep in mind. As I went through each step, I became centered on that part of the study and would have a hard time climbing out of it and centering back on the main goal. This did, however, force me to try to concentrate on what I was actually doing.

Working with Nigel on this project helped me question some of the assumptions I made about my roles as supervisor and colleague. In building our rapport, I wanted to break down some of the dynamics involved in a hierarchically defined relationship of coordinator-TA. Wagner (1997) proposes a framework for "reconsidering researcher-practitioner cooperation." First, he describes data-extraction agreements where "the researcher is clearly the agent of inquiry, the person who reports knowledge and who constructs the knowledge to be reported. Practitioners are the people whose work is described and whose work is the focus of analysis and reform" (p. 15). In clinical partnerships, the second form of cooperation, again "the researcher is clearly the agent of inquiry. But practitioners can also engage in inquiry, at least by assisting their research colleagues, and attention is given by both to the process of researcher-practitioner consultation in itself" (ibid.). The third type of cooperative research is characterized by Wagner as a "co-learning agreement" (ibid.). As he points out, "many researchers thank their subjects for contributing to the researcher's understanding of the subject world, but these affirmations rarely extend to noting new knowledge that engagement with subjects has contributed to how researchers understand their own world" (p. 16). Wagner states that in co-learning agreements, "the division of labor between researchers and practitioners becomes much more ambiguous, as both researchers and practitioners are regarded as agents of inquiry and as objects of inquiry" (ibid.). He admits however, that "while efforts are made by both practitioners and researchers to develop a shared research enterprise, these efforts can themselves reveal understandable differences of perspective, some of which may be attributed to institutional positions or social location" (ibid.). This is borne out in Nigel's perspective on our rapport as collaborators, as well as in the larger context of our respective institutional positions:

> Being involved in a study like this automatically put me in a close working relationship with my coordinator. I admit that the difference in position between my coordinator and myself made me think that working on this project was harder than if I had worked on it with a peer, especially since a grade was involved. However, my view of this relationship is completely different today. I now also see my coordinator as a partner in this project and not just as the overseer and advisor.

> At first, my coordinator was also my teacher for the methods course. This label automatically overrides all other labels. However, when I started to work on the study beyond the classroom setting and in close collaboration with my coordinator, the label of teacher eventually started to fade and I started to see my coordinator as a partner. This surprised me as I did not believe that this was possible. As this is a new experience for me, I really didn't know what to expect. I believe that it was the work that this project entailed that allowed me to make this transition in my relationship with my coordinator.

Our professor-researcher/teacher-researcher rapport fell somewhere along the continuum between the clinical partnership and the co-learning agreement. Our rapport was clinical in that as the researcher, I initiated the inquiry process, offered suggestions for reading, and facilitated the data collection process. As Wagner suggests, this is partly a consequence of my institutional position and my job responsibilities. It was a co-learning agreement in that not only did I learn something about Nigel's process of self-evaluation, reflection on action (Schön 1983), and change in his practices, I also became more aware of what I am like as a language program coordinator and how my values influence or do not influence my colleagues. I impose my beliefs about language learning and teaching on the teachers working with me, all the while aware that their beliefs may differ from mine on various levels. In the specific context of this study, I learned how my vision of "empowering" Nigel (Kinchloe 1991) as a foreign language teacher, whereby Nigel would show more independence in the reflection, evaluation, and modification processes of his teaching, did not exactly match Nigel's goals. Nigel was extremely motivated to learn; what he learned, driven by his self-motivation, superseded my vision of the process.

The research itself is partly clinical in that my beliefs about the language learning and teaching process are embedded in the research design and data collection. The questions I asked Nigel and the readings I assigned him were purposefully chosen. The follow-up questions I asked Nigel directed him to make connections I wanted him to make. Prescription, albeit veiled, was present. However, it was only natural that I function from my own world view. It was also important that I fulfill my responsibilities as coordinator and researcher since this was Nigel's first experience of research. It was also partly a co-learning agreement, in that Nigel's beliefs were also embedded in the choice of his topic, data collection, and analysis process.

Looking Out

Nigel's task of synthesizing the reflections he had over the course of a year and relating them to himself provided some closure and also more openings:

> As I look at myself the way I was yesterday and the way I am today, I see that the greatest difference is in the way I look at things. It's my beliefs that have changed. My beliefs form the basis for all my decisions and actions. I was as concerned with my teaching when I started teaching two years ago as I am today. This has not changed. I feel that I have a better idea today about what I am doing than I did two years ago; however, I realize that I still don't know enough. I will continue to look at myself and at my instruction for as long as I am a teacher. The process of this study has allowed me to see how I evolve as a teacher and how I change my teaching as a result of what I learn.
>
> In addition, I now know what a research project of this kind entails. I learned a great deal about working with someone in a research setting and about preparing a conference presentation. I believe that the researcher has to be deeply interested in the project for it to be successful. It makes the study worth the effort. Given the chance to do another study of interest to me, I would do it.

Given the continuous and cyclical nature of action research, this project can only open new avenues for reflection. For the novice teacher, the concern may be one of retaining momentum once the study is technically over—momentum for continuing the research, merging it with the daily activity of lesson planning, and revising instructional practice based on the insights gained. The objective is to change the internal drive of the professional enterprise by engaging in the habitual act of reflection. For the methods course instructor, the challenge is to facilitate teachers' transition while walking the tightrope between prescriptive and reflexive teaching. The foreign language coordinator continues to strike a fine balance between the identities of coach, guide, facilitator, mentor, researcher, pedagogical expert, and at times, collaborator. As for myself, I intend to create a follow-up course to the methods course whose objectives will center on teacher research, action research, reflective teaching, and teachers as leaders. I now regularly introduce the concept of action research in my annual fall teaching orientation. Further, looking into the mirror has made possible visions that were hidden thus far. The research would have had a different flavor had more teaching assistants been involved in the collaboration.

What one sees in the mirror of professional self-reflection depends on one's stance. The experience is personal and individual and there are no precise measures available for evaluating what and how much was gained and changed. Still, action research encourages hypothesizing and theorizing from personal experience to personal sets of generalizations about change and the learning process. Since reflection and self-evaluation form the core of action research, I find particularly apt the words of Dogen Kigen (1200–1253), a Japanese Zen master, philosopher, poet, painter, and founder of the Soto Zen school in Japan:

> When we first seek the truth, we think we are far from it. When we discover that the truth is already in us, we are all at once our original self.

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APPENDIX A

French 517: TEACHING COLLOQUIUM
Winter 1997, MW 2:00-3:30, 5260 University Hall

Dr. Sangeeta Dhawan
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Office Hours: Mon., 3:45-5:00; Wed., 12:30-1:45 and by appt.
Phone: 530-2162 / E-mail: sdhawan@uoft02.utoledo.edu

Objectives and Description

The course will provide a forum for critical reading and discussion related to issues of theory, research and pedagogy of foreign language. It will provide a frame for gaining an in-depth understanding of what it takes to become a principled and reflective teacher of foreign language. It will offer information, resources and experiences for facilitating the beginning of teachers' professional development. By the end of the semester the conscientious student will:

- show familiarity with the principal characteristics of current theories of second language acquisition;
- show familiarity with the principal issues currently facing foreign language teachers;
- describe, evaluate and critically examine the various methodologies and approaches to foreign language teaching;
- define terms frequently used in foreign language teaching and research;
- explore and evaluate self-teaching (through peer observation, journals, portfolio, videotaping)
- find and use resources available to foreign language teachers (journals, realia, professional organizations);
- develop course, unit and lesson plans for an elementary or intermediate level language course addressing the four skills, French and francophone culture, and literature;
- use, create and evaluate measures of learning (tests, portfolios);

Classroom activities and lesson structure will include discussion, lecture, presentation, group and pair work, and student presentations. Preparation for class and attendance are mandatory. Absences will be reflected in final grades, and no late work will be accepted except in case of an emergency (formal documentation required).

Course Evaluation Components

Class participation and reaction papers	30%
Four class observations (written & oral)	10%
Micro-teaching; Self-Assessment	10%
Portfolio (Journal, micro-teaching, self-assessment, observations)	25%
Final Project	25%

Class Participation and Reaction Papers (30%)

Students are expected to arrive in class having already read the assignments and completed the reaction papers. For each week of the course you will be responsible for writing a reaction paper (1-2 pages each). The reaction papers are an opportunity for you to use writing as a means of relating to and learning about what you are reading. Each reaction paper is due prior to our scheduled class discussion and should be used to respond to questions assigned to each set of readings. Besides responding to the assigned questions, you are welcome to include your reactions, criticisms, praises, etc... to the issues you are reading about. Do not merely summarize the articles! If you have questions about the readings, write them down. All reaction papers must be typed. I will respond to your reaction papers and grade them in terms of the extent to which you have attempted to discuss and analyze the readings assigned in the course. In addition to the readings, do the following:

- Your favorite quote (one or two sentences or short passage).
- One bibliographic source mentioned by the author that you would most like to follow up on.
- These will form the basis for discussion or other activities in class; they will not be collected.

Four Class Observations (10%)

Obtain permission from the instructor to attend the class. Do not attend on a test day, review or video day. You should avoid observing a class for which you are currently enrolled or that of another student enrolled in this course. At least one of these observations should be of a language class other than French. In general, the observations should include the lesson plan and a detailed account of your experience as a participant observer with descriptions of student and teacher behaviors, and salient points of your post-observation discussion with the course instructor.

20 minute observation exercise	Due 1/13
Beginning level of language you teach	Due 2/03
Beginning level of language other than the one you teach	Due 2/24
Intermediate level of language other than the one you teach	Due 3/10

Micro-teaching/Self-Assessment (10%)

Plan an activity for each skill and demonstrate it in class. The time you get to demonstrate your activity (micro-teach) will depend on the class enrollment and time constraints. Your classmates will role play the student. After demonstration in class, revise and implement the activity in one of your classes. Write a self-assessment of your design and implementation to include in your portfolio. Video taping your class is highly recommended.

Portfolio and Final Project (25%; 25%)

Four observations, micro-teaching, self-assessment, analysis of video (wherever applicable), journal entries on teaching and materials read will form the basis for the portfolio. Students may work alone or in pairs to create a final project. Details on all these requirements will follow.

Texts: Coursepack available in the reserve reading room in Carlson Library.

Lightbown, Patsy, and Spada, Nina. 1993. *How Languages Are Learned.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. (L/S)

Omaggio Hadley, Alice. 1993. *Teaching Language in Context*. 2nd ed. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. (O)

Reiken, Elizabeth. 1993. *Teaching Language in Context Workbook.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. (R)

Shrum, Judith L., and Glisan, W. Eileen. 1994. *Teacher's Handbook: Contextualized Language Instruction.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. (S/G)

Kramsch, C. 1993. *Context and Culture in Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lee, James F., and VanPatten, Bill. 1995. *Making Communicative Language Teaching Happen*. New York: McGraw-Hill. (optional)

Ramirez, Arnulfo. 1996. *Learning about Second Language Acquisition*. Longman. (optional)

APPENDIX B

PORTFOLIOS

25% of your final grade in this course will be based on a portfolio you prepare over the course of the quarter. Please read the attached excerpt from Zena T. Moore's chapter in *Teaching, Testing, Assessment: Making the Connection* (Charles Hancock, Ed.). Portfolios are valuable to me as "a collection of evidence . . . to monito . . . growth." Given the goals listed in the syllabus of this course, as well as the personal goals and expectations you have listed for yourselves, it should be possible to imagine the likely contents of a portfolio.

As noted in the syllabus, your portfolio may include representative examples of written work done for class, a videotape of your teaching, materials developed for current or future instructional use, "thought" papers or journal entries in which you reflect on readings or experiences, a written assessment of your teaching composed by an observer with a reaction statement written by you, etc. There must be at least six to seven items in the portfolio by quarter's end. Remember that you are not attempting merely to collect your "best" work, but rather to provide evidence of growth and reflection on your growth. The inclusion of brief statements explaining why you decided to include an item or items is especially appreciated. Indeed, the portfolio grade will reflect the quality of decision you have made in assembling the portfolio, as well as adherence to these guidelines. It would be wise to include your initial goal statement.

If the portfolio is physically well-presented, you may find it useful in the future as part of a larger teaching portfolio presented during job searches.

You may consult with me concerning the contents and presentation of your portfolio at any time during the quarter.

APPENDIX C

Final Project Options—Teaching Colloquium (French/Spanish 517)

Winter 1997 S. Dhawan

You have a number of options for the final project in this course. If you choose to work in a group or with another individual, it is recommended that you include no more than three people in your group. Those participating in group projects will receive one grade for the project as a whole and one grade for the individual contribution, assuming a means is provided for me to determine who contributed what.

1. Study several journal articles devoted to topics in second or foreign language acquisition (SSLA, MLJ, FLannals, French Review, Language Learning, ADFL Bulletin, Canadian Modern Language Review [CMLR], etc.) Choose a journal for which you would like to write an article; then locate and study the Author's Guidelines (pay particular attention to citation form, length, and so on., but also to the general tenor of articles published in the journal). Pick a topic introduced in the course (schema theory, content-based instruction, etc.), conduct UTMOST, OHIOLINK and ERIC searches, and write an article in which you summarize the major findings of work done in the area so far or a plan for further research of the topic. Your article should probably be about 20 pages long when typed and double-spaced, although it may be slightly longer or shorter depending on the journal you have chosen.

2. Design a beginning or intermediate language sequence for either high school (French 1 and 2 or French 3 and 4) or college (French 111 and 112 or French 301 and 302). You must include the following elements:

a. an introduction in which you present the theoretical basis for the curriculum: which SLA/FLA theories and pedagogical approaches are informing the shape of your courses?
b. a syllabus, including goal and objective statements.
c. sample materials (actual and/or description).
d. one major exam and one quiz for each course.
e. 2 classroom activities each in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. At least one must involve the introduction of grammatical structures; at least one must involve the introduction of vocabulary; at least one must involve work on pronunciation or prosodic features.

3. Extend your work on portfolios into an action research/classroom research project where you record your goals, observations, projected plans for change, recorded results of executed change in plans, evaluation of initial goal and results thereof. If you choose this option, you could be part of a team project that will have as a sub-goal to present its quarter's work at an annual national conference in Nashville, November 1997 (assuming the proposal is accepted). **This option is highly recommended as it assumes the notion of teacher as researcher, a relatively new yet rather empowering conception of what a FL teacher is all about**.

This option will require that you record your classroom four to five times, obtain relevant documents (syllabus, textbook, written assignments, etc.), keep a journal and perhaps interview several students. Your focus should be on your own teaching and how it relates to the course goals, the students, and your "growth" or "evolution" over the quarter. If you choose this option, you will need to obtain the approval of the Compliance Office (see me for details) and the students in the course. You will conduct searches on related topics such as action research, collaborative research, qualitative techniques of conducting research, conducting interviews, making transcriptions of interviews, (wherever applicable) analyzing your data and writing up a paper/ a story of your emerged research experience. The write-up of your investigation, presenting and interpreting what you learned, should be about 15 pages in length. This project will be conducted as a team and work will be appropriately divided among participants.

APPENDIX D

Student Questionnaire

1. How long have you studied French? (State if grade school, high school, or university)

____

____

2. What experience, if any, have you had with French outside of the classroom?

____

____

3. In the course of your French classes, what did you like and dislike about certain classes?

____

____

4. Which activities helped you the most in learning French? Which helped you the least? Why?

____

____

5. What aspects of French, if any, interest you? Which do not? Why?

____

____

6. What aspects of French do you feel are the most important to concentrate on when learning French?

____

____

7. If you could list one thing that would be the most beneficial in helping you to learn French, what would it be? Why?

____

____

APPENDIX E

Sample Questions for Student Interviews

1. What activities do you think are the most helpful to you in learning French?
2. What experience have you had with the French language outside of the classroom?
3. What do you think of the use of various materials we use in the classroom?
4. Does the use of certain materials aid in your understanding of a certain topic? Which ones? Why or why not?
5. Does the use of certain materials help to bring French language alive for you in any way? Why or why not?
6. What experience have you had with French or a foreign language before this class?
7. What kinds of activities did you do in your high school French class?

Meeting the Needs of International TAs in the Foreign Language Classroom: A Model for Extended Training

Cynthia Chalupa and Anne Lair
The Ohio State University

Since the 1970s the number of international teaching assistants or associates* (international TAs or ITAs) has increased steadily at U.S. institutions. While administrators, faculty, and students today agree that international TAs enrich the cultural atmosphere of the U.S. classroom and offer new insights into course material (Pialorsi 1984; Welsh 1986), the employment of ITAs in the U.S. classroom was initially accompanied by widespread complaints from undergraduates and their parents about what came to be known as the "foreign TA problem" (Bailey 1982).[1] In response to the crisis centered on international TAs in the U.S. classroom, numerous scholars examined the fundamental challenges facing ITAs and proposed program initiatives that would help facilitate their transition into the U.S. system (Boyd 1989; Constantinides 1989; Franck and DeSousa 1980; Rice 1984; Turitz 1984).[2] Such studies were based on the premise that the language barrier, both in and outside of the classroom, was the primary challenge ITAs faced in the U.S. classroom, and programs assessing the TAs' linguistic ability were "rushed in" (Heller 1986, p. 9) to prevent further complaints from students and their parents. Ultimately, ESL departments were given the responsibility of designing training workshops and seminars that would prepare ITAs for the U.S. classroom culture by improving their English language skills. In addition, educators created handbooks to guide the ITAs' transition into the U.S. system.[3] These texts outline specific strategies to improve the ITAs' classroom experience by enhancing presentation skills and pronunciation and discussing the nature of higher education in the United States.

The dilemma of the ITA was heightened by the fact that the general public perceived the "problem" primarily as a linguistic one, defined by pronunciation and fluency (Brown, Fishman, and Jones 1989). Early in the ITA debate, however, foreign language and ESL educators argued that the challenges facing the ITA reached beyond the issue of linguistic (in)competence and included cultural difference as an equally important aspect of ITA research and training (Bernhardt 1987; Landa and Perry 1984; Nelson 1989; Shaw and Garate 1984). Since the early 1980s, ITA training programs have "matured" (Rubin 1993, p. 184), and today most universities consider matters of culture, pedagogy, and North American university life in addition to language as necessary components of adequate ITA training (Hoekje and Williams 1992; Rubin 1993). Despite the considerable research devoted to the ITA programs and the "foreign TA problem," however, very little attention has been paid to a large group of international teaching assistants occupying a unique position in the debate: international graduate students who teach their native language and culture to U.S. students. While these international foreign language teaching assistants (IFLTAs) may experience culture shock in ways similar to their counterparts in other disciplines, IFLTAs who teach their native language and culture are faced with language and acculturation challenges different from those of their peers. While researchers emphasize the importance of recognizing "context" and "role" in preparing ITAs for the classroom (Hoekje and Williams 1992, p. 244), few studies have been devoted to the special circumstances of the international TA who is both the embodiment and mediator of foreign language course material. In general, IFLTAs are advised to take ESL classes if they need to improve their English skills, and/or they receive the same training as U.S.-born teaching assistants who already have an intimate understanding of the university environment in the United States.

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*The terms "teaching assistants" and "teaching associates" are used interchangably in this study.

This study examines the special situation of non-native speakers of English who teach foreign languages at U.S. institutions and argues that modules designed specifically for mentoring IFLTAs must be included in TA training workshops and seminars offered by foreign language departments. Based on a survey conducted at a large Midwestern research university, the study examines common concerns raised by IFLTAs in three distinct categories: language, acculturation, and university policy. It addresses matters of English and target language usage in the classroom, cross-cultural exchange and its role in foreign language instruction, and the international TAs' understanding of university policy vis-à-vis institutional regulations in their own countries. The study concludes with a model for training IFLTAs in the format of a six-week colloquium that begins with the dissemination of information before TAs arrive in the United States and serves as a continuation of the general pre-service workshop for all foreign language TAs in the autumn term.

The Survey

Qualitative data were gathered from a pool of 40 novice and experienced IFLTAs who were teaching the following languages at a large, land-grant institution: Arabic (1), Chinese (3), French (9), German (10), Italian (1), Japanese (5), Russian (3), and Spanish (8). The IFLTAs surveyed ranged in age from 22 to 52, with an average age of 29; respondents had resided in the United States from six months to ten years. The IFLTAs' teaching experience also ranged from six months to ten years. All of the students were currently enrolled in the departments in which they taught, with the majority seeking an M.A. or Ph.D. degree in linguistics and/or literature. In the questionnaire, IFLTAs evaluated their English skills with regard to the foreign language classroom and their use of English vis-à-vis the target language in class. They rated their understanding of the U.S. classroom environment, their role as a TA before entering the classroom, and students' reception of them and their culture. The IFLTAs also rated their understanding of university policies such as grading, academic misconduct, and sexual harassment and provided qualitative information regarding how they viewed the differences between institutions in their own country and universities in the United States.[4]

Language (In) Competence

The role of language ability versus intercultural and pedagogical skills in the classroom was already hotly debated with the development of ITA training programs twenty years ago. Indeed, research in ITA production reveals that the importance of language and pronunciation in the ITA's ability to succeed in the U.S. classroom cannot be underestimated (Anderson-Hsieh and Koehler 1988; Gallego 1990; Tyler 1992; Williams 1992). While a "language-first" strategy[5] served and, to some extent, still serves as a logical starting point for the training of international teaching associates, language training does not address the most immediate or fundamental needs of IFLTAs. For the ITA who does not teach a foreign language, English is the language of the classroom and involves linguistic formulations with which the ITA's native language often interferes. For IFLTAs, however, the target language for the classroom is, in fact, their native tongue. In the survey conducted for this study, 60% of the IFLTAs felt strongly that their English was adequate for teaching in the U.S. classrooms while at least 40% agreed that their skills were adequate; this results in a total of 100% who felt their English was sufficient for classroom use. Furthermore, 69% reported that they did not experience difficulties while trying to communicate with their students in English, while only 21% experienced some difficulty.

These results may appear unusual considering the degree of negative assessment of ITA language ability found repeatedly in the literature and in ITAs' low self-assessments (Fragiadakis 1988; Smith 1993). They may be attributed, however, to unique characteristics of IFLTAs. First, international foreign language teaching assistants are themselves language learners, often studying their own language and literature or that of another culture in depth. As members of humanities departments in their own countries, they are skilled writers and manipulators of linguistic constructions. Some of them have come to the United States to study English and American culture; however, many, in fact, the majority of IFLTAs, have come to the United States to pursue a degree in foreign language and literature studies at an American institution and to examine their culture from a different perspective.[6] Because these TAs have studied their own language in detail, often their English skills are better than those of their counterparts in other disciplines, such as in math and the sciences, who do not work with language as their daily research medium.

Another reason for the IFLTAs' high assessment of their language ability may stem from the fact that they do not have to rely on English as the sole medium through which they express course material. They are expected to use the target language in class in order to teach it and therefore must not rely on English as the sole medium with which they teach their daily lesson. Forty-five percent of the IFLTAs said they never used English in the classroom for clarification purposes. By avoiding the use of English in the classroom, IFLTAs have met one of their program's standards for success: use of the target language as the teaching medium. As Polio and Duff (1994) explain, part of the IFLTAs' role is to facilitate use of the target language to provide an exemplary model of the language, and to offer authentic usage of the target language in the classroom. The IFLTAs' reliance on their native language, however, often presents difficulty when they are asked to clarify a grammar point in English. As Salomone points out, for IFLTAs, "language problems are often related to communication about their native language" (1998, p. 553). International foreign language teaching assistants who teach their native language often find it difficult to explain concepts in English because they do not have the vocabulary to do so. One of the IFLTAs surveyed commented:

> At the beginning of the year it was really easy for me to respect the use of the target language in class because I did not feel confident enough to use English. But now that I speak better the language, I switch more frequently in English when they do not get it the first time in French, which is not good for the "cultural" environment we have to maintain in class.

Initially this IFLTA relied on explanations in the target language because her English skills were weak, offering students, as Polio and Duff remark, "opportunities to process communicative TL internally and to express and resolve comprehension problems in the target language" (1994, p. 322). Eventually, however, she switches to English to explain complex concepts, a phenomenon that occurs frequently among IFLTAs. In their 1994 study, Polio and Duff argue that IFLTAs often abandon the target language and revert to English in the foreign language classroom, citing eight categories of usage.[7] Fifty-three percent of the IFLTAs surveyed reported a heavy reliance on English to explain concepts in class although their departments expected TAs to teach in the target language. By speaking English, IFLTAs often hope to facilitate students' comprehension of difficult concepts, assuming that the explanation they give is more comprehensible in English than in the target language. As Polio and Duff contend, however, this practice often leads to more confusion because of the teachers' non-native proficiency (1994, p. 321). Using English in class may help the IFLTA establish a good rapport with students and create a comfortable atmosphere (Polio and Duff 1994, p. 318). If, however, students do not have the opportunity to grapple with difficult concepts and miscommunications in the target language, they are less likely to develop suitable strategies for negotiating meaning in the target language outside of the classroom.

Often IFLTAs' difficulty in explaining complex grammar points stems from the fact that they do not know the grammatical rules that underlie the subtleties of their native language (Gutiérrez 1987, p. 28). For example, many native speakers experience difficulty when trying to explain the rules of usage for prepositions and the appropriate cases and verbs that accompany them. A native German TA, when asked to explain why the preposition "an" and the dative case are used in the phrase "*Sie sitzt am Tisch*" (*She's sitting at the table*), may not immediately consider spatial (i.e., vertical) orientation and the static position of the subject as factors determining the grammatical construction because she is not familiar with or does not understand the rules governing usage and case when dealing with prepositions. The difficulty that she experiences when trying to explain difficult grammatical rules or certain idiomatic expressions may stem from the fact that her knowledge about the language is intuitive, not cognitive; "it is difficult for [native speakers] to explain a grammar point that 'just sounds right'" (Salomone 1998, p. 553). By contrast, the U.S.-born TA who learned German as a second language is more likely to explain the rules of usage much as she learned them, in terms of cognitive rules rather than intuition.

Another problem IFLTAs experience when using English stems from the interference of their native language when clarifying abstract points. For example, students of German or French may ask the IFLTA to clarify the difference between the present perfect and past tenses. The German TA may say that the present perfect *"ich habe gemacht"* (*I made/I did*) is synonymous with the English present perfect *"I have made/I have done."* Here, because of interference from his or her native language, the IFLTA makes an erroneous connection between the English verb form and its German correlate, forms that actually have two different meanings. When the IFLTA attempts to explain a point and uses a faulty example from English based on interference from the target language, students grasp the incorrect phrase as a point of orientation. Not realizing the TA has inadvertently made a mistake, the student associates the meaning of the word or phrase that was translated incorrectly with the meaning of a word or phrase in the target language. While ITAs in other disciplines may make mistakes in English while explaining aspects of the course content, their students focus less on the language errors than on the concept being explained. In the case of the IFLTA, when students overlook a mistake, it may really indicate that they are assigning the wrong meaning to a newly learned concept.

Ultimately, linguistic competence does not necessarily imply competent teaching. It has often been assumed that because international foreign language teaching assistants possess native ability in the subject matter they teach, they can present the course material without difficulty. However, native fluency can lead to a false sense of security about the requirements for mediating the subject matter in the classroom. IFLTAs, by reason of their intimate connection to the target culture and native knowledge of the language, are experts in the subject matter they teach, but despite their intuitive expertise, they must still learn teaching skills in order to mediate the course material.

Acculturation

Cultural differences represent the most diverse group of challenges with which all ITAs are confronted. While they are informed prior to their arrival in the United States about expectations concerning their linguistic competence, and measures are taken to assess non-native speakers' language abilities (Yule and Hoffman 1990), ITAs generally have little or no knowledge about the classroom prior to coming to the United States. Logically, international TAs first begin to gain this knowledge through their experiences in the classroom. Research indicates, however, that most ITAs need a greater understanding of the learning atmosphere and the student body before they enter the classroom, and that programs should be developed to meet this need (Bernhardt 1987; Hoekje and Williams 1992; Nelson 1989; Pialorsi 1984; Shaw and Garate 1984).[8] In fact, ITA training programs are most successful when they consider "social relationships, language appropriateness, and context" (Hoekje and Williams 1992, p. 246), all aspects of intercultural mentorship. Even if ITAs have had teaching experience prior to coming to the United States, they must relearn their role as a teacher in the U.S. context, a process that can be more challenging for experienced than for first-time teachers (Landa and Perry 1994). Because teaching involves deeply rooted values, changing someone's teaching to adapt to the U.S. culture is not the same kind of adjustment as donning culturally appropriate attire in a foreign country (Nelson 1990, p. 15). Differing opinions about education and culture affect the relationship of students and ITAs and their roles in the classrooms (Hoekje and Williams 1992), and while instruments have been developed to measure culturally differing attitudes toward education, overt differences between the ways U.S. undergraduates and ITAs view education are difficult to discern.[9]

In response to the need for a better understanding of the classroom climate, many handbooks for ITAs include a description of higher education in the United States.[10] These manuals cannot, however, prepare ITAs for the individual interactions they will have on a daily basis as a teacher. Most ITAs experience anxiety about entering the classroom because they are expected to be effective communicators with students about whom they know relatively little and with whom they do not share cultural heritage, native language, or views on the nature of university education (Franck and DeSousa 1980). Even if they are provided with some literature about students at U.S. universities, ultimately most ITAs will experience a type of "culture shock" in their first weeks or months in the U.S. classroom. One of the IFLTAs surveyed for this study recalled her first days in the classroom:

> I did have moment of culture shock but I don't think somebody can help you with this—it is just a normal thing you have to experience and it is up to you if you will go through with it.

For most ITAs, the classroom atmosphere in the United States is much more informal than in their native country, and their teaching style appears at times stiff and overly formal to their American students. U.S. classes are based on the concept of dialogue rather than one-way transference and, as Sarkisian points out, "in the United States, it is generally assumed that students will learn more in class if they are given chances to be actively involved with the material they are taught rather than only listen to lectures and take notes" (1997, p. 20). This method of classroom instruction varies from more formal systems, for example, in Europe and Asia, where pure lecturing is a widely practiced form of instruction. In many cases, faculty and TAs in the United States enjoy informal relationships with their students and embrace an attitude of open dialogue. Personal interaction between students and instructors is also very different from what international TAs may have experienced in their own country and may lead to conflict for them vis-à-vis their classroom persona. Although American students enjoy the freedom of debate, they often expect to be handled in a sensitive matter during discussion. They in turn soften commands by saying "would you please" or "would you mind" as a measure of politeness and seek less formal dialogues with their instructors (Smith 1993). They may also expect a similar measure of informality and politeness from instructors in the form of positive feedback and praise (Pialorsi 1984), a practice to which international TAs may be less accustomed in their home institution. One IFLTA surveyed for this study wrote the following:

> I think for me the biggest problem is that I didn't know what American students expect of their teachers. In my home culture that I was brought up in, if a teacher is strict with me, it means she cares about me and takes me seriously, and she hopes I can do better. But here, when I was strict with my students—e.g., only Chinese in class, no delay for homework, a lot of exercise in and out of class—some students hated me. They didn't like me to be strict with them and thought I was finding fault with them. I guess this was my "culture shock." I wish there were people who told me how American students are treated in elementary, secondary, and high school and what they like their teacher to do.

In addition to the classroom atmosphere, the culture of the university as a whole is unfamiliar to international TAs. Often they are unaware of the demographic makeup of the student body or the educational background of the students in their class. Pialorsi concludes, "Recognizing that students' educational backgrounds are in some ways similar but in many ways different should facilitate the ITAs' efforts to communicate with and understand their U.S. students" (1984, p. 20). While ITAs eventually gain an understanding of their students' abilities during the course of a semester, they are not prepared for their students' strengths and weaknesses and thus cannot use this knowledge to their advantage while planning the instruction of the course. Since the demographic makeup and educational background of students vary from university to university, new ITAs must seek guidance from experienced faculty and TAs, both foreign and native, about the background of students at their institutions and particular challenges associated with meeting their academic needs.

Like other ITAs, 50% of language IFLTAs surveyed for the study felt that they did not have a good grasp of the characteristics of the students and the demographic makeup of the university.[11] The IFLTAs had many of the same concerns discussed above; however, as language teachers and mediators of culture, they also experienced challenges different from those of their colleagues in other disciplines. Often ITAs feel they must assimilate to the U.S. classroom and its culture in order to improve mediation of the course material and to understand their students. Pialorsi states, "The foreign TA must undergo a process of acculturation in order to be effective in the U.S. classroom. In other words, he or she must 'become more like us' in order to function" (1984, p. 17). In the case of international foreign language TAs, however, assimilation is a more difficult and also more undesirable strategy. Because they are viewed as the embodiment of the culture about which they teach, to assimilate would mean to lose, in part, the authenticity of the course designed to enlighten students about the language and culture of the IFLTA's native country. One IFLTA surveyed cites difficulty in retaining the atmosphere of the Japanese culture (which is encouraged by her department) while interacting with her students in the informal manner of the U.S. classroom.

> Relationships between teachers and students are more formal in Japan, and while I'd like to teach students about Japanese culture (including formal relations with teachers), I also hope to create friendly learning environments, and it is not easy for me to balance Japanese culture and American university culture sometimes.

Ultimately, IFLTAs must focus on their culture as the subject matter of the course and the point of interaction with the students, although sometimes an aspect of this culture, e.g., teaching style, is deemed cold or uninviting by U.S. students, thus potentially leading them to lose interest in the subject matter. Unlike classes taught by ITAs in other disciplines, the classroom dialogue of the foreign language and culture classroom is founded to a large degree on the IFLTAs' "otherness." For IFLTAs it is difficult to adopt American mannerisms and culture when the students look to them as perhaps the most tangible link to the culture about which they are learning. While this emphasis on the IFLTA's foreignness inhibits assimilation and may seem to create a gap between students and instructor, it can also lead to a dialogue in which they discuss their cultures in terms of difference rather than assimilation. IFLTAs must learn how to capitalize on this difference and know when to emphasize similarities between their culture and that of the

United States. Whereas the foreignness of the ITA is often considered a hindrance to instruction in terms of linguistic ability and classroom interaction, in foreign language instruction the IFLTA's "insider" view as a native enriches the students' classroom experience.

Policy

Most U.S. TAs will have approximately seventeen years of experience with the operation, philosophy, financial structure, and goals of the U.S. educational system (K–12 + post-secondary education) by the time they enter the U.S. classroom to teach. Similarly, they will be familiar with institutional policies governing education at U.S. universities, such as grading, academic misconduct, and sexual harassment. For many international TAs, however, these policies will seem foreign because such regulations do not exist at institutions in their country or are not discussed in the same way. While studies in ITA training typically cite culture, pedagogy, and language as three fundamental components of ITA preparation (Barnes et al. 1989; Hoekje and Williams 1992), few mention specific training in university policy. In fact, often the workshops for international teaching assistants parallel those for native speakers (Plakans 1997),[12] implying that with regard to university policy, international TAs receive the same training as their U.S.-born counterparts despite their greater inexperience. In addition to topics requiring more in-depth training for ITAs such as the philosophy of U.S. institutions, student demographics, financing education in the United States, and cultural stereotypes (Bernhardt 1987), university policy is another category in which ITAs require special guidance. Preservice workshops lasting one to two weeks do not usually provide ample time to discuss policy issues at length, and while ITAs may be given literature describing university standards for grading procedures, incompletes/ failures, rosters, attendance, and syllabi or policies such as racial discrimination, sexual harassment, or academic misconduct, such guides do not take into account the linguistic ability of the ITAs, nor do they offer ways in which individuals should respond to specific classroom settings. One of the IFLTAs surveyed writes:

> The paper work sent to me from the department regarding teaching responsibilities and credit hours made absolutely no sense to me. It was difficult to accept that I should just know what this meant. It was addressed to an American reader.

ITAs do not always feel amply prepared through reading alone for situations they will encounter and therefore may unwittingly become involved in a conflict concerning one or more of the above issues.

Matters governed by university policy are difficult to define, often even for U.S.-born faculty and TAs, because they overlap with notions of culture. For example, tardiness is a complex issue related to both policy and culture. For most instructors in the United States, punctuality is a matter of respect; students who come late are to be reprimanded because they disturb other students, miss important information, and inhibit the smooth flow of class activities in an effort to get caught up. While most instructors address the problem of latecomers, punctuality cannot be considered a matter of *policy* unless it is made a graded component of the overall course assessment. Therefore students who consistently come late to class in the United States overstep a cultural boundary but do not necessarily undermine academic policy. For international TAs accustomed to seminars beginning *cum tempore,*[13] enforcing classroom rules concerning tardiness may seem exaggerated or unnecessary, particularly if there is no policy explicitly stating university practices. Even if ITAs understand university standards, it often contradicts what they have learned in the educational system of their own culture. For example, 52% of the IFLTAs surveyed for this study reported that universities in their country do not have a formulated sexual harassment policy and 24% said they did not know if such a policy exists or how it works. Similarly, of the IFLTAs who responded to questions on academic misconduct, 48% said that "cheating" was looked down upon or penalized in their country, while 35% said that it was culturally accepted and not punished based on university policy. This view is summarized by the comment of one TA:

> Cheating is a part of everyday teaching/taking exams. Often cheaters are considered "smart" when they cheat and don't get caught.

For many ITAs, "cheating" is an accepted practice in academic culture; whether it is right or wrong is a decision that is "left up to the teacher." Because of this very different cultural gauge, actions taken in the United States to guard against and penalize academic misconduct seem distorted or overly strict:

> Cheating is normal. I mean, it's not the worst thing in the world. I was really surprised by the situation here.

For ITAs, stringent university policies often conflict with the cultural norms that shaped their academic careers prior to coming to the United States. Thus they may be less likely to take appropriate action or even recognize when students in their class violate university policy because such violations do not directly contradict their notion of culturally acceptable behavior.

Policies on sexual harassment also present both cultural and, in the worst case, legal challenges for ITAs. For many of them, concepts of personal space in their culture often conflict with that of U.S. undergraduates, leading ITAs to take a very distant and detached approach to their students out of fear that their behavior might be perceived as unacceptable or offensive.

> The notion of space is limited in France. When I stand close to my students [in the U.S.], they feel uncomfortable. I ask them why, and they say "nervousness, you are too close to me." I tell them I am sorry, France is a small country. Here everything is over-exaggerated. If a student does well and I want to pat her on the shoulder and say "good job" I don't do it because I am afraid of sexual harassment. I know sexual harassment starts very quickly, but where does it stop?

Based on their understanding of sexual harassment policies, many ITAs are very concerned about their proximity to students, how their body language is perceived, and the legal repercussions these perceptions might have. While many ITAs are aware of such policies, it is often difficult for them to distinguish between what is acceptable and what is not, a dilemma that usually results in a "safe," but more unnatural, approach to their students.

It is in terms of university policy that international foreign language teaching assistants are most similar to their counterparts in other disciplines. Unlike their peers, however, they are faced with the decision of how much of their native culture to carry over into the U.S. classroom as an aspect of authentic learning. As the embodiment and mediators of practices in their country, IFLTAs are compelled to introduce as much of their native culture as possible into the classroom. Teaching U.S. undergraduates provides them with the opportunity to share knowledge of subject matter with which they are intimately connected, creating a unique moment of cultural exchange. The manner in which IFLTAs mediate cultural knowledge, however, is often made more complicated or confusing by their students' different cultural norms and university rules governing class procedures and teacher-student relations. The lack of knowledge concerning acceptable interactions with regard to both language and behavior not only creates a challenge during communication, as Tyler (1994) points out, but also in the day-to-day functions of IFLTAs in the foreign language classroom. Often they must make difficult choices about the degree to which the target culture, including classroom practices, can be instituted in the U.S. classroom. For example, while teaching her students formal and informal forms of address and greetings, a French TA also informs students of methods of greeting and physical proximity in French culture. Given notions of privacy and the respect of physical space and their link to the concept of sexual harassment, the IFLTA is reluctant to impart to her students the practice of kissing on the cheek common among friends and family in France. In addition, because of U.S. institutional policy, she fears that it may not be appropriate to demonstrate the practice herself with students or to ask students to do so with each other. Instead, based on advice from a language coordinator, she can request the help of a colleague, either a native speaker or one who has spent significant time in the culture, to demonstrate the ritual. In this manner she does not infringe upon students' notion of space, nor does she feel concerned that she has transgressed policies set forth by the university, but still feels she has imparted a very important aspect of French culture.

Similarly, a Russian TA who is accustomed to subjective forms of grading at her home institution does not immediately understand the importance of assigning and recording grade values for both qualitative and quantitative assessments in class.[14] While she retains test grades, as is done in Russia, she views attendance and evaluations of oral skills, not as numerical components of an overall grade, but as loose categories in which she assigns a more subjective value. According to her model, oral assessments are not determined by proficiency; rather a student's gregarious personality or degree of effort serves as her primary evaluative measures. The fact that this ITA is a foreign language instructor complicates the scenario because she is required to give assessments that naturally call for more open-ended and subjective forms of evaluation.[15] Here the TA's cultural understanding of grading in Russia conflicts with her view of grading policies set forth by the department. Ultimately IFLTAs must learn, in an ongoing mentoring forum, about the intersection of cultures within the classroom—when it is appropriate to implement aspects of the foreign culture in the classroom and when U.S. policies and culture take precedence. Only when the mediation of linguistic and cultural knowledge occurs within the framework of university policy can education in the foreign language classroom be deemed successful.

The Workshop

We now turn to our proposed IFLTA training model according to which ongoing mentorship would take place in the form of a six-week colloquium during the IFLTAs' first term of teaching. The workshop would serve as the continuation of an initial, two week pre-service workshop in which both international and U.S.-born TAs, from all of the language departments participate. The workshop would be offered as a series of colloquium meetings devoted to each of the three issues discussed above: language, acculturation, and university policy. Because IFLTAs are generally required to take a full courseload as part of their requirements for funding, the workshop would not be offered for credit. By arranging the colloquium meetings as a brown bag lunch series or informal afternoon meetings, the mentors would encourage IFTLAs to view the workshop as a support group rather than a course.[16] Incentives for participation would include firsthand experience in dealing with issues of academic misconduct, sexual harassment, and discrimination through roleplaying; videotapes of and interviews with experienced IFLTAs in class; roundtable discussions with experts from foreign language education, the ESL department, and university administrative offices. Students would also receive a letter of participation for their personnel file. Costs for the workshop would be minimal, stemming primarily from the creation of materials (handouts, video/audio cassettes, mailings, and equipment). The foreign language departments, the college in which they are housed, and an international studies office would provide workshop funding.

Organization and Materials

The workshop would be organized by a team of TA "mentors" with peer coordinating experience; in other words, TAs who have assisted the undergraduate language program director by coordinating one or more of the language levels. The experienced TAs would work in conjunction with foreign language program directors and a coordinating administrative unit such as the foreign language or learning center or a department that organizes workshops for teaching assistants.[17] By having a team of mentors, IFLTAs could benefit from large group discussions as well as smaller, break-out meetings. Prior to coming to the United States, IFLTAs would receive a handbook designed for nonnative speakers of English that would contain general information about education in the United States, the demographic makeup of students at the university, enrollment procedures, and TA responsibilities. In addition, the handbook would discuss the unique situation of IFLTAs as mediators of their culture to a population that may have little experience with foreign languages and practices, in terms of what they should expect from their students, how the U.S. language class functions, and foreign language classroom demography. The handbook would also include readings discussing life as an ITA with testimonials from IFLTAs specifically addressing the challenges they faced as new TAs. Finally, IFLTAs would receive a video with segments including experienced IFLTAs teaching a class; interviews with IFLTAs discussing their impressions of the university and students; helpful tips presented by representatives from university and departmental offices discussing what the IFLTA can expect upon arrival in the United States.

Meeting Format

Each session during the six week workshop would consist of a large group discussion about the new IFLTAs' teaching experiences; classroom situations would act as a springboard for conversation. In addition, participants would hear brief talks given by representatives of university offices (Disability Services, Academic Affairs, Sexual Harassment Prevention, International Education) after which they would be asked to act out scenarios in which they must address conflicts concerning grading disputes, academic misconduct, sexual harassment, and discrimination. Two panel discussions with experienced IFLTAs in the third and fifth weeks, and one with undergraduate language students during the fourth week, would provide new IFLTAs with a forum in which to discuss their questions and concerns. At this time they would be able to inquire about U.S. culture, working with students in a group setting, and ways to incorporate aspects of their culture in the classroom in a non-threatening manner.

Extended Mentorship

In addition to the six week workshop, IFLTAs would take part in a yearlong extended mentoring program in which new IFLTAs are paired with an experienced IFLTA and an experienced American FLTA. The experienced TAs, both domestic and international, act as mentors throughout the academic year, thus providing the new TA with ongoing support and feedback in subsequent academic terms. The IFLTAs would meet with their mentors on a regular basis, keep a journal of challenges and successes throughout the year, and discuss these issues on a weekly basis. This one-on-one work relationship would also provide IFLTAs with opportunities to improve their English conversation skills. At the end of the year, all of the new IFLTAs would be brought together along with their mentors to discuss the year's experiences. At this time, TA mentors or coordinating staff would collect new information for the following year's handbook, conduct interviews with IFLTAs who have just completed the program for the following year's video, and begin talking with the IFLTAs about their ideas for mentoring the class of new language teachers. In this way the mentoring system would be rejuvenated year after year, creating a network of support and knowledge for the new IFLTAs when they arrive at the university.

Conclusion

While many of the challenges that international teaching assistants encounter at U.S. institutions are universal, issues of language, acculturation, and university policy take on a new meaning for international teaching assistants who teach foreign languages. Because the presence of IFLTAs on campus and in the classroom is fundamental to the incorporation of authenticity in foreign language education and to the cultural and linguistic development of non-native speakers of foreign languages, they will continue to be recruited to U.S. programs in the future. It is, therefore, imperative that training particularly designed to guide IFLTAs be implemented at both large research institutions and smaller universities and colleges. While ESL programs can help these TAs develop their English skills, they need additional training in teaching their own language and learning about when it is appropriate to incorporate elements of authentic culture into their classroom instruction. By working with skilled faculty and language program directors and coordinators who both understand the methods of foreign language instruction and the unique aspects of the U.S. university system, IFLTAs can learn to offer quality instruction that does not "shock" their students, thus encouraging them to continue their study of a foreign language.

Notes

1. In the October 1986 edition of *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Michael Welsh, assistant provost of the University of South Carolina at Columbia, refers to the pervasiveness of the problem at U.S. institutions: "Students and parents and legislators are complaining about them. Board members and presidents are hearing about them, and academic officers are troubled by them" (Welsh, p. 55).
2. See Nelson (1990) for an overview of the literature on ITA training programs.
3. Examples include *The Foreign Teaching Assistant's Manual* (Byrd, Constantinides, and Pennington 1989), *Teaching Matters* (Pica, Barnes, and Finger 1990), and *Teaching American Students* (Sarkisian 1997).
4. For a more detailed view of the survey, see Appendix A.
5. Shaw and Granate offer an example of a "language-first" approach in their proposed "ESP" program, "English for Special Purposes" (1984, p. 29), which addresses the need for classroom survival skills in English.
6. Nearly all of the IFLTAs surveyed for this study were pursuing a graduate degree in the language department in which they were teaching, with the exception of those few who were in the United States on short-term exchange programs. Students who initially came on an exchange program

often enrolled in the degree program after one year. Even if the IFLTAs surveyed were not pursuing a degree, in order to receive funding, they had to be enrolled in language and literature courses in their department. This enrollment policy vis-à-vis funding appears to be a trend at most research institutions around the country, although occasionally IFLTAs receive funding as a language teacher while pursuing a degree in another department.

7. Duff and Polio's categories are based on the function of the items produced (e.g., for administrative purposes, grammar instruction, classroom management, etc.), the difficulty of the target language at a particular time, and the interactive effect involving students' use of English (p. 317).
8. More recently, classroom communication workshops have been offered to help ITAs with cultural interaction. These workshops help ITAs develop verbal and nonverbal behavior used both in and out of class, and teach them how to use typical American allusions in illustrating points and interpret group dynamics (Rubin 1993).
9. Aspects of the U.S. classroom culture include but are not limited to register and forms of address, manner of enunciation, concepts of personal space and professional distance, classroom etiquette, teaching practices, academic expectations, and views on education in general.
10. Examples include *The Foreign Teaching Assistant's Manual* (Byrd, Constantinides, Pennington 1989), *Teaching Matters* (Pica, Barnes, and Finger 1990), and *Teaching American Students* (Sarkisian 1997).
11. They expressed surprise or confusion about the behavior of American students and the U.S. classroom climate, noting students' lack of respect and self-motivation, their lack of seriousness with regard to their education despite high tuition costs, their negative reaction to instructor strictness, and the apparent pampering of the students by the educational system.
12. Plakans explains that such workshops place more emphasis on language competence and the culture of the classroom (e.g., attitudes toward students, answering questions, and views of minority and women students) but does not list university policy as a component that receives greater attention with regard to ITAs.
13. In many countries, such as Germany and India, seminars or lectures officially begin fifteen minutes after the hour. In other countries, such as France, students are accustomed to professors coming late to class.
14. At the time of this scenario, the TA was employed in her first quarter of teaching and did not understand the strict departmental rules regarding grading procedures and recordkeeping.
15. ITAs teaching in any discipline requiring open-ended or subjective forms of grading would potentially encounter a similar dilemma.
16. An ongoing workshop could be offered for course credit; however TAs may have to take it as an overload, based on departmental requirements for funding. In any case IFLTAs would not be graded for their participation

but would be encouraged to bring in questions or materials from class to discuss with their peers in a large group setting.

17. Ideally, most TA mentors would have had some experience as a peer coordinator or course section leader. They would participate in an orientation workshop prior to the beginning of fall term. At this time they would examine together the challenges of language, acculturation, and university policy facing IFLTAs. They would review university policies and discuss roleplaying scenarios to be used during the workshop. They would develop handouts and gather readings for a packet to be distributed to IFLTAs at the first meeting. If the workshop is offered for credit or is implemented in smaller programs, faculty or staff would be responsible for organizing and executing the course.

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APPENDIX A

International Graduate Associate Survey

Background

Country of Origin: ______________________________

Months/Years in the U.S.: __________

Language(s) you teach: ______________________________

Months/Years of experience: __________

Female __________ Male __________ Age __________

Area of study/degree program ______________________________

Travel abroad (list exchange programs and/or extended stays in foreign countries):

____

Why did you come to the U.S.?

____

____

Survey

Please answer the following questions based on your experiences as a teaching associate at the Ohio State University. Any additional comments are welcome. There are two sides.

SA=Strongly Agree A=Agree D=Disagree
SD=Strongly Disagree NA =Not Applicable

1) My English skills were adequate for teaching a language class at OSU. SA A D SD NA

2) I experienced difficulties while trying to communicate with my students in English. SA A D SD NA

3) I was required to take the TOEFL and/or an ESL class upon entering the university. SA A D SD NA

4) My target language interfered with my ability to communicate with students in English. SA A D SD NA

5) I spoke English in class while clarifying difficult ideas instead of communicating in the target language. SA A D SD NA

Acculturation

1) I understood my responsibilities as a GTA before entering the classroom. SA A D SD NA

2) I had a good grasp of the characteristics of the students and the demographic makeup of OSU before entering the classroom. SA A D SD NA

3) I understood concepts of U.S. classroom environment (e.g. concepts of space, politeness, classroom etiquette, etc.). SA A D SD NA

4) My understanding of appropriate classroom behavior was similar to that of my students (concerning attire, food, attitude, learning atmosphere, posture). SA A D SD NA

5) My students understood and respected the country of my origin and its culture. SA A D SD NA

University Policy

1) I had a good grasp of OSU grading procedures before entering the classroom. SA A D SD NA

2) I understood the importance of grades vis-à-vis the learning process for U.S. students. SA A D SD NA

Explain differences between U.S. grading policies and those in your own country. What is most important in your country (grades, learning the material, other)?

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3) I understood and agreed with university policies such as attendance, exam proctoring, enrollments. SA A D SD NA

How important is attendance at universities in your country? Are students penalized for missing classes?

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4) I was aware of and understood policies concerning academic misconduct. SA A D SD NA

Do institutions in your country have an academic misconduct policy? How is "cheating" viewed by students, faculty, the university?

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5) I was aware of and understood policies concerning sexual harassment. SA A D SD NA

Do institutions in your country have a sexual harassment policy?

How does this policy differ from polices or practices in the U.S.?

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6) My department offered training on university policies such as academic misconduct and sexual harassment. SA A D SD NA

Please comment on any challenges you experienced with regard to any of the above categories. Consider university policies, moments of "culture shock," and conflicts you may have felt with regard to policies at institutions in your own country. Include the category to which you found it most difficult to adjust and why. We are particularly interested in hearing your comments about and reactions to university policy issues in the U.S.

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Training Graduate Teachers and Foreign Language Assistants in UK Universities: A Reflective Approach

John Klapper
University of Birmingham

1. Background

The rapidly changing context of British higher education, with its highly regulated system of quality performance-related research funding, external assessment of teaching standards, and evaluation of administrative procedures, has recently seen a number of significant developments in the field of modern languages. A substantial expansion of undergraduate student numbers without any comparable increase in resources has led to, among other things, the employment of considerable numbers of part-time or temporary language teachers. Prominent among these are foreign language assistants (FLAs) and graduate research students, usually referred to as postgraduates (PGs). While in several institutions the former (typically young native speakers from universities in France, Germany, Spain, and so forth) have traditionally been employed to provide small group "conversation classes," more and more language departments are tending to give their FLAs, especially the more experienced ones, greater whole group teaching responsibilities. Meanwhile, in universities with substantial research activity, PGs are being recruited, either on short-term teaching assistantships or on an hourly-paid basis, to cover undergraduate language classes, especially in the first two years of the standard four-year degree program.

The author would like to acknowledge the work and support of Penny Gravestock, Manager of the DOPLA program, and of his fellow trainers on the University of Birmingham training course, Ros McCulloch of the Staff Development Unit, and Dr. Carol Gray of the School of Education, both of whom have also acted as co-directors of DOPLA.

The relatively short duration of assistants' teaching contracts (often just one year) leads to a high turnover for the staff, and this, together with universities' increasing dependence on such "cheap labor," represents a potential Achilles heel in quality audits. Furthermore, following the recent creation of a national Institute for Learning and Teaching (see ILT 2000), a key recommendation of the Dearing Report on Higher Education (National Committee 1997) whose mandate was to promote the professionalization of all teaching staff in universities and to devise mechanisms for the accreditation of individual teachers, the PGs and FLAs are a group likely to come sharply into focus over the next few years. Throughout higher education there is, consequently, a growing acceptance of the need to provide training for all part-time or casual staff.

In recognition of this need, the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) has invested approximately $400,000 in a project aimed to devise an appropriate training scheme and to encourage as many universities as possible to adapt it to their own institutional settings. The scheme, entitled DOPLA (Development of Postgraduate and Language Assistants), originated in the University of Birmingham and has been extended, trialled, and tested over the past three years by a consortium of British universities consisting of the Universities of Bristol, Coventry, Leeds, Salford, Sheffield, and UMIST (the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology). Each of these has worked with a small number of partners to disseminate the training model to a total of more than 35 British universities.

The program is based partly on contemporary approaches to the initial training of secondary school teachers in the UK and assumes that the reflective elements so important in such courses can be included even in much shorter term training for part-time, temporary teachers in university language departments. Sections 2–4 of this chapter consider the theoretical basis of reflective practice and its application to the distinctive pedagogy of modern languages. Sections 5–8 then show how these theoretical issues are embodied in the specifics of DOPLA training, providing an overview of the modular structure and a brief introduction to the program's key elements.

2. Reflection on Practice

The idea of reflective teaching dates back at least to Dewey (1933) and his contrast between "routine action" and "reflective action." The former is shaped by such influences as authority, tradition, and habit, as well as by the expectations and norms of institutions. Routine action is inflexible and static and is therefore unable to respond easily to changing situations and needs. Reflective action, on the other hand, is characterized by a readiness to engage in regular self-appraisal and evaluation; it is necessarily flexible and analytic and entails an acceptance of the need for constant self-development.

Building on Dewey's ideas, Schön (1983, 1987) develops his concept of reflective practice for the professions. He starts from a critique of "technical rationality," which he considers the conception of professional knowledge that has been most influential in shaping Western thinking about the professions. On this view: "professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory" (1983, p. 21). Professional practice depends on and makes use of a clearly defined body of scientific knowledge which is systematic, fixed, and free from ambiguity, and professionals apply its general principles to specific problems in a clear hierarchy which Schein (1972, p. 39) describes as:

1. an underlying discipline or basic science from which practice develops;
2. an applied science from which day-to-day procedures and solutions derive;
3. a skills element which involves the performance of actions based on the basic and applied knowledge.

This hierarchy normally implies an institutional separation of research from practice, with the former—often university-based—seen as superior to the latter and consequently accorded greater academic status.

Schön distinguishes between the "high ground" of scientific work, such as laboratory-based research founded on objective and quantitative evidence, and the "swampy lowlands" of such professional work as education which features more subjective, interpersonal concerns and qualitative judgments. In contrast to the rigorous analysis of "technical rationality," these lowlands are complex and instinctive responses; they employ and depend on the knowledge inherent in everyday professional activity. Citing examples from architecture, design, music, counseling, and psychoanalysis, Schön suggests such "knowledge-in-action" is intuitive, spontaneous, and frequently intangible but does work in practice. From it can be developed a new epistemology of practice, variously called reflection-in-action, reflective inquiry, or learning through doing, in which practitioners regularly adjust their actions on the basis of direct experience:

> When someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a researcher in the practice context. He is not dependent on the categories of established theory and technique, but constructs a new theory of the unique case.

> . . . He does not separate thinking from doing, ratiocinating his way to a decision which he must later convert to action. Because his experimenting is a kind of action, implementation is built into his inquiry (Schön 1983, p. 68).

Such reflection-in-action can help to solve the inevitable "rigor or relevance" debate (1983, p. 42 and 1987, pp. 8–9), in which traditional approaches are criticized for a lack of practical relevance, while alternatives are thought to lack real substance. It is argued that if pursued systematically, reflective inquiry can be just as rigorous as the scientist's theoretical and technical research.

Another significant factor in the development of praxis-oriented conceptions of knowledge has been the increasing emphasis placed in recent times on experience in the learning process. The major influence here has been the notion of "experiential learning" advanced by Kolb (1984, p. 38), who defines learning as a process whereby knowledge is created through transforming experience.

3. Reflective Teaching

The ideas of both professional training and experiential learning have found much support among educational researchers and have become fundamental to work on teachers' thinking and on so-called "craft knowledge" (Calderhead 1988; Elbaz 1983; Rowland 1993). The specific notion of reflective teaching (cf. Zeichner and Liston 1996) has been particularly influenced by the contrast between "experiential knowledge" and "received knowledge" (Wallace 1991, p. 12). While the latter denotes those research-based theories, data, and facts generally accepted unquestioningly by education specialists, experiential knowledge is something teachers build up through their everyday practice, in which they are inevitably and continually involved in making decisions and judgments and in adapting their practice to the changing requirements of both the classroom and individual students in a way they could find difficult to justify according to scientific criteria. Schön's claim that professionals "display skills for which [they] cannot state the rules and procedures" (1983, p. 50) applies just as much to teachers, many of whose responses to a range of classroom issues are not subject to the application of research-based theories or received knowledge but often depend on feelings and intuitions. A reflective approach to training is thoroughly grounded in classroom practice and seeks to encourage teachers to think about their intuitive decisions, with the aim of consciously developing "knowing-in-action" and making this the basis of their evolving professional expertise.

A crucial contribution to this teacher-driven approach has been made by the action-research movement, which promotes the idea that teachers should be researchers of their own practice and that their teaching and curricular decisions should be shaped by questioning their pedagogy and by collecting data about their classrooms, specific teaching methods and learners' responses (see Elliott 1991; Kemmis and McTaggart 1988; McNiff 1988). In brief, this involves teachers in a continuous loop of planning, action, monitoring/observation, data collection, analysis, evaluation, and renewed planning. After reflecting critically on the evidence collected during classroom practice and evaluating results, teachers need to decide what changes are required to classroom policies before planning how these are to be implemented and returning to the start of the cycle.

With regard to initial teacher training, the traditional "craft model" of much professional education, whereby an apprentice or student is shown how to do it by a skilled practitioner and then has to copy this "master," is now seen as inappropriate in a society where skills and knowledge are changing so rapidly. The reflective approach turns the observation of an experienced teacher into something to be analyzed and reflected upon, rather than unquestioningly imitated. The insights thus gained are then linked in an appropriate way to the trainee's own teaching.

One of the more dramatic indications of the spreading influence of reflective practice on the world of education can be seen in the training of secondary school teachers in British university departments of education. Training there is now predominantly school-based; less than one quarter of teacher trainees' time is spent in the academic environment, and most of that is devoted to the pedagogy of their specific discipline, key educational legislation, and whole-school issues. With correspondingly limited opportunities for the traditional theoretical "input," reflection on practice, linked to a highly developed system of school-based mentoring, is widely seen as the best way to develop, evaluate, and refine teaching competences.

4. Language Teacher Training

How do these general theories of reflective practice relate to the training of language teachers? As Richards and Lockhart argue (1994), language teaching in many traditional training programs is seen as an applied science, namely, applied linguistics:

> The significant theory and knowledge base underlying teaching is presented during the campus course. The teacher's job is to apply this knowledge in the classroom. Once teachers enter teaching they are

> expected to master the more 'trivial' aspects of teaching, such as how to handle routine classroom techniques and procedures. Improvement in teaching comes about as teachers match their teaching more closely to the theories and principles introduced during their MATESL [master's degree in teaching English as a second language] (p. 202).

In this view, failure in teaching is to be put down to a novice teacher's inability either to understand the findings of applied linguistics or to put them into practice in an appropriate manner. This model of training insists that the findings on which practice depends can only be determined by those expert in the particular field, not the teachers themselves "on the ground." The resulting separation of research and practice is the cause of many teachers' discontent with what they see as remote theorists who fail to understand the realities of the language classroom. As a classic example of this, Wallace (1991, p. 11) cites the failure of the supposed language learning panacea of audiolingual or structural drill methodology based on scientific methods derived from a behaviorist understanding of language acquisition. The belief that language learning, like all other kinds of learning, is dependent on the formation of habits and that practice alone is sufficient for learning to take place betrayed an ignorance of real-life language use, of the fact that practice in the classroom is very different from "natural" language production, and led, despite widespread classroom teacher skepticism, to a generation of language learners being subjected to meaningless stimulus-response exercises. (One might add that, conversely, the separation of research and practice also leads some professional language education specialists to dismiss classroom teachers who show little or no interest in basing their practice on "sound" applied linguistic theory.)

This top-down approach to teacher development, involving a thorough theoretical grounding in applied linguistics, is to be contrasted with the bottom-up approach of reflective practice in which the ongoing process of critical reflection on classroom activity is fundamental to the development of practical knowledge about teaching. Rather than seeking to put into practice in an experiential vacuum the theoretical insights of phonology, morphology, second language acquisition, error analysis, and language testing, beginning language teachers need to draw repeatedly on the knowledge provided by reflection on their everyday teaching. They need to seek insights from their experience of implementing specific classroom techniques and procedures, such as differing methods of tackling foreign language texts in class, the use of audio versus video for work on pronunciation and intonation, inductive versus deductive grammar teaching, the teaching of vocabulary acquisition strategies, etc. They also need to draw on the findings and insights resulting from observation of their teaching, as well as their own observation of both peers' and more experienced colleagues' classes. And finally, very gradually, they need to start formulating their own pedagogical theories. (For more on this approach to the language classroom, see Nunan [1989].) To do otherwise is to put the cart before the horse. The demands, strains, and tension of the early stages of teaching, especially in a discipline such as languages with its complex and evolving pedagogy, make it impossible for teachers to retain and make sense of the wealth of applied linguistic knowledge thrown at them on a typical training course. Such theoretical knowledge must rather spring from practical experience; it must, in part at least, be formulated by teachers themselves on the basis of their own insights into practice.

It is certainly the role of initial language teacher education to ensure that novice teachers have an appropriate mastery of the target language, are familiar with the relevant metalanguage, and have explored the main facets of teaching a foreign language. But above all else, such a course must provide teachers with the skills to examine their own teaching and to take responsibility for their own professional development which needs to be based on a continual process of reflection, reassessment, and renewal. Issues which *experienced* teachers might periodically wish to reflect on include:

- what their role as teacher is
- what beliefs they hold about learning and teaching
- how these beliefs shape the style of their teaching
- what their students think about learning and teaching
- how these views affect the way students learn
- what cognitive styles and learning strategies their students favor
- how learners interact in the classroom
- whether such interaction can be improved.

Beginning teachers, on the other hand, are likely to want to focus on more immediate issues, such as:

- how effectively they open and close lessons
- their control of timing
- how realistic their lesson plans turn out to be
- student involvement in the lesson
- the use of student groupings

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- language use in the classroom (e.g., the amount of L2 versus L1 talk)
- the balance and blend of activities
- their grading of questions
- transitions from one activity to another
- the clarity of their instructions
- their use of the OHP/board and other equipment.

Critical reflection on these aspects of classroom practice is one of the principal means of evaluating the effectiveness of teaching, of discovering whether there is any discrepancy between what teachers teach and what learners learn, and, if so, of identifying aspects of current practice which need to be changed. Clearly, any changes subsequently introduced must in turn be monitored and evaluated, thus emphasizing the continuous nature of the reflective process.

5. The DOPLA Approach

Basing itself on these theoretical premises, the DOPLA training program provides initial training for language teaching assistants, tailored both to participants' severe time constraints and institutions' limited training resources. The program also acknowledges that several, if not most, participants are unlikely to become career teachers and therefore require support for their immediate, short-term classroom needs, while others hope to develop a career in higher education with extensive teaching duties and may thus have longer-term needs.

The program's aims can be summarized as:

- to equip teacher trainees with basic general teaching and assessment skills relevant to higher education
- to focus on the specific skills needed for foreign language teaching
- to encourage active reflection on practice in all areas of teaching.

The original course team decided to adopt both a procedural and a structural approach to reflective practice. On the one hand, individual sessions would be designed in such a way as to encourage the production of materials and lesson plans by trainees themselves, which would be followed by discussion, reflection, and feedback. On the other, the very structure of the course would be based on learning from classroom experiences, with three days of intensive initial training and related activities, after which teacher trainees would take their first steps in the classroom over a period of about two months, and with a subsequent second short intensive course incorporating reflection on practice and further training.

Another decision made very early on was to integrate elements of generic training with subject-specific work. This is a fundamental and distinctive principle of the training concept, motivated in part by the frequently voiced criticism that standard generic staff development training lacks relevance to teaching within specific disciplines. Accordingly, the course team brought together expertise in both generic and language teaching skills: the first member of the team was an academic working in both the German Department and the Modern Languages Unit (language center); the second, a training officer from the Staff Development Unit; and the third, a trainer of language teachers for secondary schools from the School of Education. The national DOPLA program has followed this original model and seeks to encourage in all participating institutions an alliance between academic linguists and non-language staff developers or trainers in order to ensure that the training is relevant in subject terms and also educationally coherent.

One of the greatest difficulties facing anyone implementing a DOPLA-style program is the variety of both languages and teaching which one encounters in universities. Typically, trainees can be teachers of French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, or Spanish, to name just the most common. Furthermore, language teaching can range from "prose-translation" classes in one department to predominantly communicative FL-medium work with minimal translation in another; from *ab initio* (or beginners') work with some groups to advanced level work with others. There is often the added complication of certain FLAs being asked to work as providers of traditional, closely defined small group conversation classes and others being given greater autonomy in work with whole language classes; some PGs are further allocated non-language (e.g., literary) tutorial groups as well as language work. The solution to such diversity has been to design a flexible, modular training program, whereby all participants attend a number of core modules and selected supplementary modules relevant to their specific needs. The DOPLA program thus consists of the following:

Core Modules

- How Students Learn
- Small Group Teaching
- Experiencing a New Language
- Teaching Grammar
- Working with Authentic Materials

- Understanding Language and Language Learning*
- Assessment
- Language-learning Strategies*

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*Reader modules

Supplementary Modules

- Translation as a Learning Process
- Approaches to Literary and Cultural Studies
- Ideas for Communicative Work at Advanced Levels
- Techniques for Using Video and Audio Materials
- Using Information Technology in Language Learning
- Application of Computer-assisted Language Learning Packages
- Working as a FLA in the British Education System
- The Culture of British Higher Education*

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*Reader modules

Institutional variety means that no two realizations of DOPLA training are likely to be the same; even the same module, while following the structure laid out in the training manual, may well introduce slight variations to meet local needs. Nevertheless, in spite of such diversity, the program is held together by a number of fundamental principles which all courses need to adhere to when adapting the training. These are:

- a two-part course, the first devoted to intensive initial training
- a subsequent period of classroom practice
- a second part combining reflection on practice and further training
- over the program as a whole, a combination of generic and subject-specific training
- within each training session, short-focus trainer input linked to group-generated output
- regular opportunities for teacher trainees to produce sample materials or lesson plans
- opportunities for participants to evaluate the program.

Teacher trainees, like all learners, can acquire knowledge in a variety of ways: they can listen to lectures, read handouts and books; they can also acquire it through discussion, brainstorming techniques, and carefully structured question-and-answer sessions. All of these approaches are employed in the DOPLA program in one form or another. The key is variety, so that different "channels" are employed to address the needs of trainees with differing learning styles—just one way in which the training seeks to be "self-reflective," i.e., demonstrating *through the mode of training itself* how classroom practitioners should approach their task (Woodward 1991).

In fact, the reflective practitioner model informs the delivery of individual sessions as well. Essentially, the pattern is to provide input lasting 30–50 minutes, during which time the trainer conveys the main principles of the particular topic. Participants are then asked to immediately put these principles into practice in a workshop situation by applying them to sample learning materials or different aspects of language.

In line with Bruner's "heuristics of discovery" (1965), the theory underpinning these workshops is that teachers should be able to tackle problems in general rather than just learn to cope with a specific one. Trainees are here engaged in an activity which involves them in discussion of teaching points presented as problems that need to be solved. For example, groups are given a text and are asked to exploit it for some specific learning purpose using their general experience or background knowledge (cf. discussion of Session 1 below), or they are asked to think of how to teach a grammar point in their particular target language. This may involve working in either cross-language or language-specific sub-groupings, depending on the task set. The results of groups' deliberations are subsequently pooled in a plenary during which a spokesperson for each group makes a presentation using a flip chart or overhead projector, with trainees providing feedback on each presentation. The lesson plans and lists of ideas are then typed up and distributed to all course participants along with handouts provided by the trainers, with which trainees can compare their own ideas (see Doff [1988] for more on this approach). Through these workshops, participants gradually build up a substantial collection of teaching strategies, techniques, sample lesson plans, checklists, and materials, which can be put into more or less immediate effect in their teaching.

6. Generic Training Modules

The first module, "How Students Learn," is fundamental to the whole program and will therefore be presented in some detail. It introduces teacher trainees to a number of key principles for effective learning, linking generic issues common to all disciplines with those specific to teaching modern languages. The session begins with an overview of students' concepts of learning, presented as a hierarchy:

1. learning as a simple increase of knowledge;
2. learning as memorizing;
3. learning as acquiring facts or procedures to be used;
4. learning as making sense;
5. learning as understanding reality.

The purpose of this overview is to suggest that university work is ultimately concerned with helping students articulate subject understanding at levels 4 and 5. It is also emphasized that this is a long, drawn-out procedure, that integrating new knowledge into existing knowledge is a slow business: language teaching, especially, has to be recursive and repetitive in order to take account of these "loops" of learning with their starts and stops, their gains and losses.

The second key principle presented here, which runs as a leitmotif throughout the program, is the distinction between surface and deep approaches to learning (Biggs 1987; Chalmers and Fuller 1996, pp. 6–8). Students employing a deep approach are motivated by interest in the subject matter, not by fear or exams; their intention is to reach an understanding of the meaning of the material being presented, not to engage in rote learning. Students using the deep approach ultimately gain knowledge of broad principles supported by a sound factual basis, rather than only knowledge of mere facts and superficial understanding. Trainees are shown how all study, including language learning, has moments of both surface and deep learning (e.g., students need to memorize vocabulary and structures before they can express themselves freely in the target language) and that the teacher's role is to employ classroom strategies to bring the two together fruitfully, with the overall aim of allowing surface elements to lead towards deep learning, at which point the student starts to make sense of what he or she has learned and sees how things fit together. In languages, this means ensuring that the learning process incorporates purposeful, communicative language use and takes into account the students' desire to express meaning on subjects and for purposes which matter to them. Trainees are then introduced to a number of techniques and approaches that encourage deep learning.

The surface-deep contrast serves once again to illustrate the self-reflective nature of the training program. The very approach adopted by the trainers, namely, actively involving trainees in the sessions, linking tutor input to trainee output, and creating clear motivational contexts ("How will you cope with this problem when you confront it in your teaching in five days' time?") are illustrative of deep learning in action—a case of practicing what one preaches. Through these methods and through conscious reflection on why the trainers are employing them, trainees develop an understanding of the meaning underlying the pedagogical theories, ideas, and techniques being presented and demonstrated in the course.

Closely linked to this surface-deep dichotomy is the discussion of effective learning with its four main characteristics:

1. active learning (students posing their own questions and seeking the answers);
2. integrated learning (learning applied to a variety of subjects concurrently; learning applied in the context of real-life situations);
3. cumulative learning (sequenced learning experiences that become progressively more complex and challenging);
4. learning for understanding (having appropriate opportunities to reflect, receive feedback, and link to practice).

This leads to the heart of the module, as the key elements of effective teaching identified by Biggs (1989) are elaborated. With regard to the teaching of languages, these elements might be presented as follows:

- building on a well-structured knowledge base (starting from where the students are; initial diagnosis of ability/linguistic proficiency and consequent tailoring of tasks; frequent revision and reinforcement)
- providing a motivational context (personalizing language learning; ensuring relevance; provoking personal interest; encouraging integrative and, where appropriate, instrumental motivation)
- ensuring learner activity (limiting passive listening; stimulating through active involvement; task-based learning, learning through doing)
- facilitating interaction with others (organizing students in pairs and small groups; maximizing target language use; project work with exchange students; more general contact with native speakers).

In many ways the whole DOPLA training is built around these four pedagogical tenets, and subsequent modules refer back to them repeatedly, emphasizing the close link between the generic and the subject-specific elements of the program. Throughout the program participants are encouraged to look for exemplification of general teaching principles within their own subject areas, and thus messages concerning student interaction and involvement, the need to stimulate, challenge, and provide opportunities for creative work within meaningful, relevant contexts are introduced into modules on such diverse topics as grammar, translation, the use of authentic texts, and the use of video.

Following the tutor input is a workshop in which participants are divided into non-language-specific groups and given a selection of English language texts. (Owing to the linguistic diversity of participants, English is always used as the common language for illustrative purposes.) Using these texts, trainees are asked to devise teaching strategies and language learning activities that exemplify the four key elements of effective learning and teaching and that encourage students to adopt a deep approach. The groups' deliberations are recorded on flip-chart paper and displayed. Each group then elects a member to talk the class through the group's ideas and explain the thinking behind them, leading to whole-group discussion. The sheets are subsequently typed up and distributed.

The same format is adopted for the second module, entitled "Small Group Teaching." The tutor input briefly presents the findings of research into learner groupings and student likes and dislikes, looking at types of grouping and methods of teaching small groups. It further emphasizes the importance of listening skills in teaching, presents strategies for questioning, and runs through the different types of questions (probing, reflective, open, closed, etc.), explores why questions may not produce answers and what to do about it, and provides hints on how to explain things and ways to respond to students. The session also includes reflection on and discussion of strategies for dealing with typical classroom problems (the accompanying handout is reproduced as Appendix 1). Again, this module is fundamental to the whole training program, as the ideas presented inform almost all the subsequent language-specific sessions; indeed, the structure and design of the latter are intended to embody and exemplify the techniques recommended here.

7. Language-specific Modules

The language-specific component of the course begins with an introductory lesson in a language unknown to the majority of the participants. Institutions can choose any language for this purpose, depending on the make-up of the particular group of trainees, although the DOPLA pack provides a Russian lesson on video as standard. The aim is to put the teaching assistants back into the position of language learners, thereby demonstrating to them both the difficulty of learning a (new) language and the range of techniques that can be used for *ab initio* teaching.

The rapid expansion in non-specialist, or institution-wide, language learning in UK universities over the past decade has meant an increase in the amount of *ab initio* language teaching being carried out. In practice, most of such teaching is allocated to graduate assistants and other part-time staff; hence the issue is a central one for the DOPLA program. However, although the specific methodology has immediate relevance for those who will be teaching beginners, the general pedagogical principles which emerge from the module "Experiencing a New Language," most notably the need for careful sequencing, graded questioning, modeling, repetition, practice, and reinforcement, are relevant to teachers at all levels.

The lesson is set up to reflect the aims of interactive language teaching. It is conducted entirely in the target language with the support of realia and pictures, and content is chosen to reflect a genuine purpose: the students are taught to greet each other and introduce themselves, then to order tea and coffee with the appropriate mixture of milk and sugar. There is a gradual build up of material from individual words to short phrases, and then to questions and answers which eventually merge to form a short dialogue that students practice and perform in pairs. Repetition and carefully staged question and answer techniques are used throughout to ensure maximum participation. No written support is given, partly because in Russian (or Japanese, etc.) it would be of little help to a beginner, and partly to demonstrate the demands which language learning places upon memory and the difficulty which even highly skilled and motivated linguists experience in recalling linguistic items. Subsequent analysis of the lesson (see Appendix 2 for the accompanying worksheet) encourages trainees to identify the techniques used and to chart their own progress, but also to discuss their feelings throughout the process, which generally progress from anxiety owing to complete absence of comprehension to eventual enjoyment and satisfaction with their achievements. The guide questions on the worksheet also help to establish the link with the generic elements of the program introduced in the module "How Students Learn."

Considerable attention is paid in the course to grammar, as this is likely to be one of the common factors in participants' teaching.

"Teaching Grammar," in which participants are shown how grammar can be taught in context using the target language, is therefore one of the program's core modules. After a brief introduction to the role of grammar within contemporary approaches to language teaching, participants watch a video of an advanced French grammar lesson, during which the use of the subjunctive after certain phrases is introduced/reviewed and built into a communicative activity. The lesson is analyzed in terms of its adherence to the key features of learning and the essential features of language teaching which have been raised in earlier sessions. Trainees then participate in an activity demonstrating the teaching of a point of advanced English grammar (the modal expression "should have" + past participle). Finally, they divide into language-specific groups with the task of identifying a grammatical item in the language they teach which might present difficulties for learners, and planning a lesson to introduce and practice it. This plan is then presented to the whole group and all lesson plans are collected for subsequent duplication and distribution.

A closely linked module is "Working with Authentic Materials." This session demonstrates and rehearses a range of interactive and communicative activities that can be adapted to reinforce language learning at any level, but which are especially relevant for teachers working with the authentic texts featured in most advanced university language courses. First of all, a tutor explains the communicative approach to language teaching and the need for both communicative and pre-communicative work. Next, participants are given a pre-communicative task to perform, based on the video of the French class seen in the module "Teaching Grammar," and are asked to create their own information-gap activities from materials provided. There is then further brief tutor input on the use of authentic materials, before trainees begin work adapting the ideas introduced so far in the course to a representative sample of the actual materials they will be using in their forthcoming teaching.

One of the most difficult aspects of teaching for new assistants is adapting to departmental norms and expectations with regard to marking, or grading. In some institutions the problem is exacerbated by the uneven application of formal written criteria. In the absence of written guidelines and specific criteria, PGs and FLAs tend to fall back on their own experiences as students (often negative marking within a norm-referenced system) which may or may not be relevant to the practices of their new department. Most teacher trainees find it difficult to "tune in" to senior colleagues' norms and standards, and yet it is clearly important that there should be comparability across parallel groups in a department. Accordingly, one of the core modules of the training program is devoted to exploring the marking of student work.

Following the, by now, standard input–output model, participants are introduced in a plenary session to the various types of assessment (diagnostic, formative, summative, normative, and criterion-referenced) and its different functions (feedback on teaching, grading tool, etc.). At the same time, they are shown the importance of clear, consistent marking criteria and are given a range of general and activity-specific criteria which they discuss briefly. They are then broken up into language-specific groups and given anonymized pieces of undergraduate work (foreign language essays) which have been graded and corrected by full-time academic staff, but from which the grade has been removed. Trainees discuss the relative merits of each piece and agree on a grade; following discussion of the process by which they arrived at their decision, they are told the grade actually awarded to the essay. This process of gradual sensitization to the particular departmental "grading culture" continues after the course; each PG/FLA is allocated an experienced mentor who, besides observing them teach, also grades the first couple of pieces of work with them, thus ensuring an element of standardization. This approach undoubtedly provides much needed guidance and reassurance, although assessment remains a significant cause of concern among PGs and FLAs and some senior colleagues are reluctant to allow assistants too much autonomy in this area.

Besides these sessions, the core program also features two reader modules. The first, "Understanding Language and Language Learning," provides a non-technical introduction to the study of language, theories of second language acquisition, the role of error, learning styles and motivation. The second, "Language-learning Strategies," looks at techniques that research has shown to encourage effective language learning and which teachers need to encourage in their students, including strategies for vocabulary building and developing the various language skills. A third reader module, "The Culture of British Higher Education," is included in the supplementary modules and is aimed particularly at foreign language assistants from abroad who are used to a different university system. It considers, among other things, the language-learning background of British high school graduates, their relative lack of independence in comparison to some other higher education systems, their motivation and expectations, the teaching styles normally employed in British universities, and the structure of degree programs.

Following a period of teaching (anything from six to twelve weeks, depending on semester patterns), participants return for an intensive two- or three-day follow-up course. In the first session, each trainee teacher provides a short presentation on an aspect of his/her classroom practice which went well and on something which did not work or is causing concern. Tutors are usually extremely impressed by the extent to which novice teachers have enthusiastically implemented the ideas discussed in the first part of the course, making good use of small group settings, employing varied reporting-back strategies, interactive oral activities, imaginative written tasks, original approaches to specific grammatical points, and lively techniques for vocabulary learning designed to encourage retention.

Of at least as much interest are the difficulties that the PGs/FLAs have encountered. Here, too, they usually identify for themselves all the key issues, both generic and language-specific, that make teaching problematic. Problems at the generic level include: deciding what tasks to set and how to ensure they are at the appropriate level; getting students to do assignments both inside and outside the class; fostering a supportive and participative teaching environment; and dealing with silent students/groups. Trainees also identify problems specific to language teaching: expecting undergraduates to handle ideas, linguistic structures, *and* vocabulary all at once in language work; structuring oral activities or traditional conversation classes to ensure the whole class is involved and that real discussion takes place; coping with differing levels of linguistic proficiency in the same class.

While listening to the presentations, members of the course team collate the problem areas under discrete headings and set groups of participants the task of devising teaching strategies to tackle them. Examples of headings from recent iterations of the course are "Getting students to work outside of class," "Motivating students," "Dealing with absenteeism," "Error correction," "Balancing formal grammar with communicative activity," "Getting students to read set [assigned] texts," "Making difficult texts accessible," "Use of the target language," "Integrating language work with content," "Teaching vocabulary." Each group is given feedback on its topic in the form of a presentation and the course tutors contribute to the ensuing discussion. As with the first part of the course, the benefits of group work are quickly apparent: groups come up with a wealth of ideas to tackle the problems which, on their own, participants had previously found insoluble. Materials are again typed up and distributed.

The second part of the training also offers the opportunity to introduce supplementary modules. Two of the most popular are the introduction to information technology and the hands-on session on computer-assisted language learning, in which a range of computer-based and multimedia language learning packages are presented along with suggestions on how best to exploit them. In "Translation as a Learning Process" emphasis is placed on adapting small group teaching techniques to translation from and into the target language. After considering the weaknesses of many traditional approaches to translation, the group is invited to explore alternative, interactive methods, some involving parallel texts and information technology, prior to attempting a group exercise in which trainees have to put into practice the principles outlined in the input session. Finally, the supplementary module on "Approaches to Literary and Cultural Studies" provides a basic guide to the "nuts and bolts" of working with a literary text and an introduction to critical techniques and literary theory. Lack of space precludes discussion of other modules, but further information can be found on the DOPLA Project website (DOPLA 2000: www.bham.ac.uk/dopla) which contains all the training materials, as well as reports on implementation of training from around the consortium.

8. Evaluating the Process

It is in the very nature of the DOPLA program and its reflective approach that participants should be involved in the evaluation of both the "what" and the "how"—that is, the content and the process of the training. Throughout, they are given the opportunity to consider and evaluate both orally and in writing the training sessions and related materials. At the same time, by means of the deliberate and conscious modeling of the course itself on the pedagogical principles and procedures the trainers wish to recommend (sound knowledge base, learner activity, learner interaction, and so on), trainees are constantly encouraged to reflect on and to evaluate *how* the sessions are being delivered.

Ultimately, of course, some form of assessment is required to establish how far the course objectives have been achieved. Accordingly, trainees must compile portfolios including both voluntary and compulsory instruments of reflection and report. Portfolios are increasingly being seen as a central component in the reflective process in all areas of professional educational development (Lyons 1998). They feature prominently in the compulsory teaching and learning programs for new academic staff currently being introduced into UK universities, most of which have either sought or are seeking accreditation of their training by the Institute for Learning and Teaching (ILT 2000: www.ilt.ac.uk). Successful completion of such programs results in ILT membership. The DOPLA project's portfolio is designed to be integrated into these institutional programs and thus to gain trainees Associate Membership of the ILT.

The DOPLA portfolio includes:

- a log or journal
- 10 lesson plans
- 10 self-evaluation sheets for the same lessons
- 2 reports on lessons observed by a departmental/academic mentor
- 1 report on a lesson observed by a peer or fellow trainee
- 1 report on observation of a lesson taught by a peer.

Trainees are encouraged to maintain a teaching log or journal on a regular basis (e.g., twice a week) to record specific events which occurred during their lessons or general issues arising from their teaching so they can review and reflect on them at a later date—and most immediately to support their presentation in the second part of the training course.

The lesson plans must be detailed and include a copy of materials used in a range of classes and at different levels of language proficiency. Trainees then refer to and reflect on these plans in their self-evaluations, each of which has to feature a description of what happened during the class, presented either as a structured list under various headings or as a continuous narrative (see Appendix 3 for sample questions to be addressed in such an evaluation). The self-evaluation should focus on the aims of the lesson, time spent on the various activities, teaching procedures, student response, unexpected difficulties, changes of plan, the most and least effective phases of the lesson, what students learned in the lesson, and what one might do differently on another occasion.

The mentor observations required are recorded on standard tick-box schedules provided in the training pack which focus on (a) introduction of the session, (b) organization, (c) presentation, (d) student participation and interaction, and (e) conclusion of the session. There is provision at the end of the form for the observer to record comments. Before the class, observer and mentor are encouraged to meet briefly to agree to the aims of the session and to allow the teacher to mention any specific aspects of the class he or she wishes the observer to focus on (e.g., use of target language, questioning technique). In a subsequent follow-up meeting, observer and teacher discuss the observation schedule and the teacher can add his or her comments. There is also an optional section for an agreed action plan for improvement. The training pack includes detailed guidelines on the observation process for those with little experience of it.

The observations of fellow novice teachers are intended to be less formal and may be recorded either on the above schedule or in narrative form. Trainees are, in any case, encouraged to go beyond this minimum and make peer observation a regular supportive activity—in effect, the first steps on the road to reflective professional practice.

Conclusion

There can be no doubt that a modern university system needs to ensure thorough and professional preparation of its teaching staff. The first steps have already been taken towards this long overdue professionalization of teaching in UK universities. It will doubtless be many years before all academic staff are accredited members of the Institute for Learning and Teaching; in the meantime, it is essential that support be provided in language departments for the growing number of part-time graduate assistants and the already substantial population of foreign language assistants who, in some academic departments and language centers, are responsible for carrying out the majority of language teaching. The DOPLA approach offers a flexible response to this need and can be adapted to the local requirements of any institution. In emphasizing the close link between the generic and the subject-specific elements of training, it encourages what invariably turns out to be a fruitful collaboration between subject specialists and educational developers. In this sense, the program serves as a model for all academic staff development. Indeed, DOPLA-style training would not be out of place in the professional development of senior faculty, especially as language teaching ability is still rarely a factor in the appointment (or promotion) of such staff.

If it is accepted that teachers need to become reflective practitioners and to reflect constantly on their classroom experience, then much of their initial (and indeed subsequent) training should be experiential, i.e., characterized by close involvement in relevant, practical, and, wherever possible, heuristic activity. By the same token, the training must practice what it preaches, must be what I have called self-reflective, and embody precisely those approaches and activities which it recommends for the language classroom. Sessions thus need to be varied, to involve the trainee actively at every stage and to promote deep approaches to learning; they need to establish clear motivational contexts and to encourage trainee interaction and trainee output.

The trainers on the original DOPLA course frequently make use of an old Chinese proverb: "Tell me and I'll forget. Show me and I may remember. Involve me and I'll understand." While recommending this to trainees as a blueprint for effective language teaching, the course organizers also see in it a neat and pithy summary of what their training concept seeks to achieve.

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APPENDIX 1

Small Group Teaching

Strategies for dealing with problems

1. **The whole group is silent and unresponsive**
   a) Be provocative; use humor; *don't* give the answers.
   b) Break up the whole group into sub-groups; separate any cliques.
   c) Think about why the problem is happening (shyness? over-confidence? passivity? students thinking that just turning up is enough for learning?) and tailor your strategy to your analysis of the problem.

2. **Discussion goes off the point and becomes irrelevant**

   Non-language seminars: Pull back gently, take a look at your watch, keep the atmosphere light and unthreatening. Say you'll come back to their point at a later stage.

   Conversation classes: It doesn't matter as long as students are talking. Keep talk focused on target language; draw people in with invitations (e.g., "Do you want to talk about that?"). Issue a program for the session/semester to everyone and give reminders that the group needs to keep to its schedule.

3. **A student arrives late**
   a) If they are regular offenders, talk to them about it. Talk quietly in class to individuals to bring them up to date (without fuss).
   b) If they are more than 10 minutes late, stop the class, explain that lateness is not acceptable; that you cannot keep repeating yourself, and there is the rest of the class to think about.
   c) Ignore the latecomer.
   d) Make the latecomer apologize and give their excuse in the target language.
   e) Ask those who are present to explain to the latecomer what they have missed.

4. **Students have not done the preparation**
   a) Make sure everyone was clear on what should have been done—could it be that they have misunderstood?
   b) Explain their responsibility to the rest of the class to do the preparation—i.e., they are letting everyone else down.
   c) If they have missed a class, it is their responsibility to find out what needed to be done.
   d) Do one question with them.

5. Members of the class do not listen to each other

a) Write down students' answers on the board—if there are missing points, ask them as a class to fill any gaps.

b) If they do not listen to each other, signal to the student who is talking to be quiet.

c) Put a direct question to any student who is not paying attention.

d) Ask another student to repeat what has just been heard—keep doing this until they get the general idea.

e) Rephrase/summarize what a student has said, to aid mutual comprehension.

f) If a discussion is going on for some time, stop and summarize the discussion so far.

g) Give listeners a task to do while they are listening to a presentation from another student: this will help to structure their thinking and responses.

6. Students do not answer when you ask a question

a) Rephrase/simplify/break it down. If still nothing, make it a simple multiple choice, then ask them to justify their choices.

b) Ask someone else to model the answer, then go back to the original student.

c) Make sure the level of questioning is appropriate for the student.

7. A student dominates the group

a) Listen, then stop him/her and invite other answers. Be positive, e.g.: "I've heard your point, let's hear from someone else."

b) You may need to have a word with the student afterwards to make clear you do not undervalue his/her ideas.

c) Move your eye contact away to someone else to signal that it is now someone else's turn.

d) Give him/her the task of getting everyone else to contribute—enlisting the help of dominant students can be very useful.

e) Get a dominant student to put forth an extreme point of view and ask the others to attack that position.

f) Make "taking turns" a part of the culture of the class—perhaps even establish that from the start.

g) Remember to encourage the very bright students and not de-motivate them—you might want to assign them extra work, or suggest other areas of language/literature they can follow up for themselves.

8. People pick on a member of the group in an aggressive way

a) When someone says something politically or personally objectionable, support the person who is being picked on; defuse the situation or distract the group. Emphasize that this is a discussion—and provocative views can be a good way to investigate issues. Make it clear that you do not support the view.

b) You are more likely to get ostracizing: ask some students you trust to look after the student who is being shut out and help them along.

c) Indicate your disapproval (e.g., through body language) when students are unpleasant to very keen students. Point out to them that they should be taking responsibility for their own learning.

d) Encourage the other students to have the confidence to speak up themselves instead of being hostile to someone who is keen.

9. A member of the group is silent and never joins in

a) Talk to the student after the class to find out why: is it shyness? lack of interest? In either case, picking on the student will not help. Try to build confidence in shy people by finding something to praise (e.g., read out a good sentence from their written work). Involve them in pair or group work for a more supportive setting. If in the language lab., have an *individual* conversation to praise and encourage them, and reassure them as much as you can. Ask for work in class that they find comfortable—e.g., prepare something to say, read something out.

b) Some people do like to be quiet in groups—do not force anyone to speak.

APPENDIX 2

Russian lesson worksheet

Introduction

You will now be watching a video recording of an actual language class. In this lesson a group of students has a first lesson in Russian. The first thing to establish is "Where are the learners starting from? What is their knowledge base?" In other words, "What does the teacher know about the learners?"

(a) that they know no Russian

(b) that they have met and done some work together, but that they have not spent a lot of time together as a group. However, some of them know each other quite well.

(c) that they are all linguists

The Russian lesson

Read through the questions on this sheet before you watch the video. This will familiarize you with its contents. As you watch the video, jot down answers to the questions.

(The lesson began at 10.00 a.m.)

10.00–10.10

How does the lesson begin?

How much reinforcement is there at the beginning?

What steps are taken by the teacher to avoid individual embarrassment?

Describe the actions and facial expressions of the teacher.

How many phrases are introduced in the first ten minutes?

10.10–10.20

In what ways does the teacher revise and reinforce what has been done?

10.20–10.30

What new phase of the lesson begins?

What is the first way the teacher checks for recognition of new words?

She introduces a new phrase—how do the learners understand what it means?

How does the teacher get students to practice the new material?

Do students have any control over the material they choose to use?

How is the knowledge tested?

What is the final stage?

10.30–10.32

What is the final review stage?

General points

What attitudes do the learners show to the tasks they are asked to do?

How would you describe the atmosphere of the class?

What is the aptitude of the learners for the tasks they are asked to perform?

How does the teacher behave towards the members of the class?

Assess the lesson with regard to:

- structure of knowledge base
- motivational context
- learner activity
- learner interaction.

If the learners had not been linguists and had not met before, were there any points in the lesson that might have been done differently?

APPENDIX 3

Lesson evaluation sheet

These suggestions are designed to help you think about points for lesson evaluation

1. What were the aims of the session?	What were you hoping to achieve in this class? What were students supposed to be able to do afterwards that they could not do before? Which grammar point/vocabulary were you hoping students would learn? What were you hoping to assess?
2. Were aims achieved?	Were aims wholly or partly achieved? Were aims appropriate to the class? Was content covered? Could students understand/reproduce/use the language? What language exactly have they learned? What did any assessment show?
3. Were methods suitable?	Relative success of question and answer technique; way visuals, OHP, etc., were used; pair work, group work, drills, games, information gap activities, balance of teacher-led session and student-centred work. Were your methods appropriate to the class/time of week/time of day? Was the balance of support/challenge right for these students?
4. Were class management procedures effective?	Orderly start/finish to lesson, including controlled change of activity; effective organization of learning groups; clarity of instructions; handling interruptions; fostering relationships and equal opportunities.
5. Was the use of resources effective?	Use of black/white board, text books, worksheets, overhead projector, cassette player, flash-cards, computers. Did you make the most effective use of them? Did you make effective use of human resources, i.e., the students themselves?

6. Next lesson targets and follow-up	What should be planned next? Practicing content in a different form? Add in more new material? Mark work/listen to recordings/target three or four students during the lesson and act on feedback? Specific targets for next class? Not just in terms of content but in terms of your own behavior/approach.

Working with Lecturers and Part-Time Faculty: A Case Study of Russian in the National Capital Area

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Introduction

Many in our profession have examined the growing use of part-time faculty to teach undergraduate foreign language courses. Huber (1995, 1993) and Benjamin (1998) document the explosion in the use of part-time faculty in foreign language instruction since the 1980s.[1] Yet reliance on part-time instructors poses problems both for the institutions hiring them and for the part-time teachers themselves. Egged on by contributors to *ADFL Bulletin* and the authors of countless position papers on the issue of part-time faculty,[2] we full-time faculty descend on deans and provosts with all the arguments we can bring to bear. For institutions the growing dependence on part-timers invites ethical questions. Some point out that part-timers do what all too many view as "grunt" work at low pay with no benefits in a gender ratio that more than casually suggests discrimination (Sullivan 1993; Warhol 1997; ADE 1998). Others among us question the ethics of using part-timers to free senior faculty members from teaching assignments, especially undergraduate introductory classes, or in our case, language classes. From the part-time instructors' point of view, job stability, salary, and time commitment are crucial issues. No matter what the perspective, the issue of part-time instructors has become central in foreign language programs—one that we must address realistically.

This chapter examines the specific issues and problems in hiring part-time instructors for foreign language courses. Specifically, I will discuss the part-time situation for teaching Russian in the Washington National Capital Area. I will look first at the major factors in hiring part-timers, particularly compared to graduate teaching assistants, commonly considered an ideal source of affordable language instructors. I will then discuss the results of an informal anonymous survey of schools offering Russian in the National Capital Area.[3] The discussion of survey results is supplemented with input from individual interviews with both part-timers and their employers in this area. Although this survey represents a microcosm of the Russian teaching situation, it is hoped that the experience of this region and its institutions can be instructive for other institutions in similar circumstances. The chapter concludes with suggestions for addressing the most troubling problems of part-time employment in Russian departments.

Russian Language Teaching in the National Capital Area: An Overview

Few institutions suffer more from reliance on part-timers to teach language, Russian and other less commonly taught languages in particular, than medium-size urban campuses with no graduate programs. The size guarantees just enough Russian/Slavic language courses to outpace the number of available permanent instructors. Would-be teachers, many willing to work at "Russian" wages, abound. Truly gifted teachers, however, do not. With almost no graduate students to rely on, schools race to find whatever cheap talent they can.

The Washington, D.C. National Capital Area, with nine colleges and universities that teach or have recently taught Russian, is representative of what could be either heaven or hell for part-time instructors and those who employ them. Nine colleges in the area have offered Russian over the last ten years. Four of these institutions have undergraduate Russian majors. One other has a four-level program with no major. Three offer Russian instruction dependent on student demand. Regardless of their program offerings, all use part-time faculty. Only one uses graduate teaching assistants as well. Part-timers in the National Capital Area find teaching jobs not only in colleges, but also in a half dozen or so international, federal, and private consulting agencies that make up the language learning landscape of this city.

Part-Timers or Graduate Teaching Assistants?

The National Capital Area has only one Russian/Slavic graduate program (a masters'), and graduate teaching assistants account for only two Russian teachers with one section each, compared to 51 sections staffed by other part-time faculty. The lack of graduate students as a cheap and more ethically defensible source of apprentice labor lends a certain cast to the area's part-time profile.

However, not all view graduate teaching assistants as a reasonable alternative to part-time faculty members. Many view both graduate teaching assistants and part-timers with the same jaundiced eye. For that matter, Langenberg (1988) refers to *all* non-tenure-track faculty members as the "subfaculty." However, the differences between part-timers and graduate teaching assistants are in fact significant.

1. Professional profile and motivation. Those who seek part-time employment teaching foreign language are typically not pursuing careers in education or academia, or they may be at the end of a career in teaching. Even for those part-timers with a life-long professional interest, career rewards for good work are minimal. Graduate teaching assistants, on the other hand, are assumed to have made a career decision about the field. Most of those in Ph.D. programs will be seeking tenure-track jobs. Here, the rewards for successful teaching extend well beyond one's graduate career. While many decry the reliance on graduate assistants as a money-driven diminution of the undergraduate experience, administrators can argue that giving graduate students paid apprenticeships is a necessary part of replenishing the field. No such argument can be made to defend part-time employment. Still, administrators often claim that part-timers are, in fact, highly prized professionals who have deigned to share their intellectual resources with a university community. In the National Capital Area that idealization applies to a small number of experts, often retired from service in the government or the private sector, who indeed find fulfillment in sharing their expertise with new generations of students and for whom the pay is strictly symbolic. (For Langenberg 1998, such teachers are true *adjuncts*—non-academic professionals who devote a fraction of their time to imparting knowledge about their work; they are not academic part-timers in the traditional sense.) Thus the profile of a Mary Jones from the U.S. Department of State or a John Smith from the Rand Corporation is hardly typical of an Anna Ivanova who juggles her schedule to teach three lower-division Russian courses, all on different campuses.

2. Compensation. Part-timers are typically paid a few thousand dollars per course with no benefits, except perhaps a parking space. Some schools allow part-time instructors limited tuition waivers. Graduate teaching assistants receive comparable cash stipends plus tuition waivers and student benefits (such as special health care plans available to students on many campuses). In many cases, the graduate assistant comes away with a considerably better package than the part-timer.

3. Training. Smaller, purely undergraduate departments have little reason to invest in teacher training for their part-timers. Part-timers, in turn, have little incentive to invest their own time or money into outside workshops, as they learn very quickly that such efforts go unrewarded. Compare this to the lavish treatment accorded graduate assistants in the form of extensive in-service training and support for attendance at teaching and curriculum workshops by departments with an eye on job placement for their students.

4. Competence (teaching ability and target language proficiency). Generalizations here are always dangerous, but a few points are worth mentioning. Part-timers are mostly native speakers (and mostly women). Many come to their part-time positions with little or no experience of teaching Russian in a North American milieu, although many have taught English to Russians. While they may have some methodological theory behind them, part-timers must learn what they can expect of American students in a typical four hours a week. They must also discover what Americans bring with them to the foreign language classroom, which for many Russian émigrés is shockingly little. Graduate teaching assistants, on the other hand, are likely to be products of the North American educational system who took the typical route to their Russian: college (perhaps preceded by high school), followed by study and/or work in country (i.e., abroad). At the very least, such teachers remember their own Russian-learning experiences. In those cases where graduate students have had the benefit of competent instruction, they have pedagogical models to follow. Of course, on the downside, non-Russian graduate assistants come to the classroom with deficiencies in the target language, some of which may be significant, especially in a classroom where the teacher is expected to engage in extensive role-plays as the "native Russian." Role-play, a classroom rarity twenty or thirty years ago, requires the kind of near-nativelike behavior that is beyond the proficiency level of many graduate assistants.

5. Technology readiness. Technology is time-intensive. Learning how to use it and planning its integration into the curriculum demands a commitment that is likely to go well beyond what can be reasonably expected from a part-time employee. Mastering the details of the latest software on campus may be too much to ask of a teacher who shows up to teach only three hours a week. Graduate teaching assistants, with a career ahead of them to map out, are more likely than part-timers to be receptive to and even innovative in the use of instructional technology. With more on-campus time to devote to the technologies specific to the institution in question, teaching assistants are able to get a handle on what existing media fit into what course; many create their own course-specific materials.

6. Institutional loyalty and time on the job. The freelancing nature of part-time work lessens the dependence on and loyalty to a single employer. Serving many masters creates time problems: many part-timers run from campus to campus, leaving little time for extra office hours, meetings, or training sessions. More ominous are the consequences of a spat between a part-timer and an employer. With contacts throughout the tight-knit Russian-language teaching community of a city, a dissatisfied part-timer is in a position to spread a great deal of local ill will. Graduate students are most likely bound to one department. As teachers they are usually guided by their own professors, creating a mentoring relationship and further incentives to do well.

Given the unavailability of graduate teaching assistants for all but two sections in one of the schools in the National Capital Area, program directors are confronted with factors that are likely to be magnified representations of other localities.

Survey of the National Capital Area

The survey supplies an overview of the situation with part-time instruction of Russian language courses at nine institutions in the National Capital Area. The discussion of the survey results is based on these categories: people and pay scale, teaching load, training and experience, and student perceptions/language proficiency outcomes.

The Local Market: People and Pay Scale

On the face of it, part-timers wishing to sell their services to our schools should be facing a buyer's market with far more job-seekers than positions available. (Contrast this to the situation in a language like German, where recent local experience shows that even untrained teachers are hard to come by at the current low pay scale.) But qualified Russian teachers represent a tiny fraction of the candidates. Many job seekers—and some administrators—are surprised to learn that departments seek more in the way of qualifications than the status of an educated native speaker. Local colleges compete for talent not only with each other, but also with those offering contract positions in the public and private sectors. Respondents from three schools said that they hire only those with solid methodological training. Many part-timers find their way into academic teaching during or after a part-time job at the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, or private language agencies such as Diplomatic Language Services, Inlingua, or Berlitz. Many others have left stable careers as language program directors in the Russian educational system. For that reason identifying and hiring good people is often a matter of enticing them away from more lucrative, prestigious, or convenient positions elsewhere.

Creating such enticements is difficult because institutions find it hard to be flexible about pay. Part-time budgets for new hires are usually fixed by the dean, based on years of service at a given institution (and only sometimes on experience elsewhere). As Table 1 shows, new hirees can count on pay ranging from $567 per credit hour taught ($1700 per semester-length 5-credit course) to $1000 per credit hour ($3000 for three hours a week). The high end in the area, for those with the most experience in terms of extensive academic backgrounds at other schools, is $1333 per credit hour or $4000 for three credit hours. Both the median and the mode is $750 per credit hour where most schools offer basic language at four credits per course.

Table 1.
Pay

Institution (anonymous)	low end		high end	
	pay/ course	pay/ cr-hr	pay/ course	pay/ cr-hr
1	2835	566.6	2835	567
2	3000	1000	4000	1333
3	2700	900	4000	1333
4	2200	550	3000	750
5	1500	750	3000	750
6	3000	750	3000	750
7	3000	750	3000	750
8	2800	700	2800	700
9	1800	600	1800	600
Average Nat'l Capital Area	2537	729	3048	837
Median Nat'l Capital Area	2800	750	3000	750
Mode Nat'l Capital Area	3000	750	3000	750

Note: Interviewees reported per-course pay and number of credit hours taught, from which pay per credit hour was calculated.

Interviews revealed that compensation is not the only factor that prospective part-time teachers consider. Because they often have other obligations, part-timers seek out jobs with convenient scheduling, such as contiguously scheduled classes or positions that offer two sections of the same course (one preparation). Finally, the quality of the student body can be a deciding factor.

Despite a friendly competition for the limited resources in the area, local institutions often assist each other in finding part-time instructors. It is not unusual for language program directors and department chairs to consult with each other and share the available talent.

Teaching Load

Most universities follow AAUP guidelines for part-time faculty, allowing a maximum of two courses per semester. Of course, given that language courses in the National Capital Area can run four or five hours weekly, the actual number of classroom hours for two courses can equal that of a load of three courses per semester. Furthermore, departments usually have little trouble convincing the office of human resources to approve an occasional third course for a part-time instructor. Three schools have recently had part-timers take on a third full course, despite the discomfort of the administration.

How much Russian language instruction is in the hands of part-timers? (See Table 2.) Of the nine respondent schools, three have no regular program in Russian, and part-timers are thus used for all instruction. In the remaining six schools, part-timers teach from 33.3% to 62.5% of all language sections for an average of 51.1%. (According to Benjamin [1998], the national average for foreign language courses taught by part-timers in four-year colleges is 37.1%.)

Because the pay is low and part-timers are hired exclusively to cover teaching responsibilities, the departments surveyed are loath to add to part-timers' responsibilities when full-timers are available (Russian Club, extra meetings, and so on). That is not surprising, given the pittance that most part-timers receive. On the other hand, such limitations deprive the department of using a large number of their faculty members for various forms of outreach.

The use of part-timers is often viewed as academia's way of coping with rising enrollments and oversubscribed classes (Welles 1998a, 1998b). That applies to many freshman English classes, and in foreign languages, to Spanish classes. But Russian is not Spanish, and departments that teach Russian find that the opposite is true: low enrollments in Russian are a constant threat to multiple sections, or to entire programs themselves. In such an environment, administrators

Table 2.
Full-Timer (FT) / Part-Timer (PT) Ratio

Institution (anonymous)	1st year		2nd year		3rd year		4th year		Other	Totals		Of	Total %	
	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	PT	FT	PT	Total	FT	PT
1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	4	50.0	50.0
2	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	4	2	6	66.7	33.3
3	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	2	3	5	8	37.5	62.5
4	3	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	7	7	14	50.0	50.0
5	1	1	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	3	4	7	42.9	57.1
6	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	4	4	8	50.0	50.0
7	0	1								0	1	1	0.0	100.0
8	0	1	0	1	0	1				0	3	3	0.0	100.0
9	0	1	0	1						0	2	2	0.0	100.0
Nat'l Cap PTs/FTs*	8	8	4	7	6	3	5	2	4	23	24	47	48.9	51.1
Nat'l Cap Overall*	8	11	4	9	6	4	5	2	4	23	30	53	43.4	56.6
U.S. 4 yr. coll. FLs													62.9	37.1
U.S. 4 yr. coll. Overall													61.9	38.1

Note: Data does not include graduate teaching assistants. One of the National Capital Area institutions uses two graduate teaching assistants.

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and undersubscribed departments have arrived at a tacit agreement: part-time instructors serve as a hedge against permanent closings. Take the case of one local institution where enrollment in the only section of first-year Russian dropped below critical mass (in this case eight registrations). The part-timer was let go until better days, and the Russian course remained in the catalogue.

Training and Experience

While no respondent reported formal in-house training, several methods of quality control were described, including class observation and student evaluation. Six of the nine schools reported class peer visits as a method of quality control. Two schools reported that they send new teachers to visit the classes of exemplary teachers. Program directors from four schools (all of which have part-timers teaching alongside full-timers) emphasized limiting their hiring pool to people with previous pedagogical training and experience. By pedagogical training they mean training that native speakers of Russian had received in language programs at various institutes or university departments (Pushkin Institute, Moscow State University, Herzen Pedagogical University, Nizhnii Novgorod Pedagogical University, and so forth).[4] Despite the native speakers' qualifications and experience, three schools reported a preference to place native-speaker part-timers in tandem with full-time teachers in lower division courses where possible. *In tandem* refers to strictly team-taught courses (mostly introductory intensive courses at six to eight hours a week) as well as to tightly coordinated sections, in which those teaching in tandem are required to adhere closely to a day-by-day syllabus. Only in upper-division courses, where, arguably, a teacher serves primarily as a native informant, do departments feel that they can give part-timers more autonomy. The resulting picture is one in which part-time teachers have little in the way of programmatic responsibilities. However, as one respondent noted, not all senior instructors are willing to observe the unspoken rule that tandem teachers not be saddled with heavier curricular responsibilities.

Student Perceptions and Performance Outcomes

Do students see a difference between the instruction they get from part-timers versus what they get from full-time faculty? (See Table 3.) Previous studies suggest that part-timers' success or lack thereof is based on too many individual factors to be readily codified (Benjamin 1998; Hoffman 1980). Lombardi (1992, p. 59) goes so far as to suggest that part-timers are in a position to come out ahead: with no tenure protection, they might put forth more effort in preparation and

Table 3.
Comparisons and Comments

Institution, Comparison		Comments
1	~same	None
2	~same	PTs teach lower division courses in tandem with FTs.
3	~same	PTs with previous pedagogical training. 2 Non-NSs.
4	FT slightly better	PTs with previous pedagogical training. Intensive courses taught in tandem. Nearly all NSs. Some PT spots consolidated into FT and regular PT.
5	Comparison impossible	PTs observe FT class. PTs teach different populations than FTs. Professional pedagogues only.
6	~same	PTs in tandem for intro courses; some PT spots done by GTA. PTs (not TAs) must be trained pedagogues and NSs. Emphasis on putting NS PTs in 3rd, 4th year.
7	PTs only	Suspended program
8	PTs only	FT became PT because of low enrollments.
9	PTs only	New program

FT - full-time. PT - part-time. NS - native speaker. GTA - graduate teaching assistant.

teaching than full-time instructors because they must satisfy the needs of their students or lose their jobs.

For all but one of the schools surveyed, the answers are based on respondents' impressions, either from student polling or proficiency testing, rather than hard data. Overall, part-timers' classroom delivery of Russian-language instruction does not vary tremendously in quality from that of full-timers. However, "classroom delivery of instruction" does not account for factors such as in-tandem teaching or strategies in assigning courses based on part-timers' perceived strengths and weaknesses (e.g., introductory versus advanced courses). In three schools, the issue is moot: all the Russian instructors are part-timers. In one of the schools, part-timers handle different courses with different populations (students with previous Russian instruction from elsewhere versus "home-grown" students, i.e., students whose previous instruction has been exclusively in that very same institution), making direct comparisons difficult. Faculty at the remaining four institutions answered that students perceived some difference but not much. Of course, such impressionistic responses could well reflect the efforts of the respondents to be fair to their part-time faculty, even at the expense of their own egos. After all, they were being asked to speculate on how their students compared part-timers to themselves. Nevertheless, one of the institutions polled keeps statistical data on student preferences and speaking levels over the years. There the full-time Russian teachers win in popularity, but only by 0.3 on a scale of four points, a mere 8% difference.

Of course, popularity does not guarantee learning. But again, respondents were largely unwilling to claim that producing measurable results and being a full-time faculty member were clearly linked. One explanation, the use of native-speaker part-timers in positions that emphasize their strengths—upper-division courses and in tandem in beginning-language sequences—has already been discussed. The respondent from the school that divided classes on the basis of whether students came in with Russian from other institutions was unwilling to ascribe differences in performance to the instruction itself. The respondent felt that difference in previous preparation was enough to make direct comparisons difficult.

Summary and Suggestions

The most striking note to emerge from the survey is the perception of an almost non-existent gap in quality of instruction between full-timers and part-timers, despite the ethically questionable conditions under which part-timers work. The Soviet-era adage "They pretend to pay us, so we pretend to work" does not seem to apply here.

If the difference in student preference is small, and if the outcomes between classes taught by part-timers and classes taught by full-timers appear to be the same, why fret over who teaches Russian? Staffing, however, involves more than student evaluations. Language program directors must address a number of issues:

1. **Risk.** Each new hire entails a risk. Part-time hiring decisions often come at the last minute, with little opportunity for meaningful vetting. Choices are made on the basis of a CV, recommendations, and an interview. Classroom demonstrations at the end of the summer or during the winter break are usually out of the question. Yet seeing a teacher in action is key to making a successful hiring decision. Those who run programs threatened by low enrollments are understandably sensitive to the quality of instruction. Bad teachers drive students away, while good ones have the potential to retain or even attract students. As one of the interviewees said, "So far we've had lots of luck." Departments' attempts to minimize risk result in lost scheduling flexibility as part-timers are assigned to teach in tandem or advanced courses.

2. Faculty development. The volatility of the part-time pool hinders serious faculty development. Part-time faculty members are forced to be nomadic. For that reason, language program directors must think twice about sending part-timers to expensive proficiency or technology workshops, despite the fact that the part-timers are just as likely (even more likely) to participate enthusiastically and with tangible results.

3. Continuity. By and large, part-timers teaching Russian in the National Capital Area are successful in the classroom. Given long-term appointments, many would develop a student following—a must for any field with low enrollments that could threaten the elimination of jobs and/or entire programs. However, the nature of part-time employment makes such stability difficult.

The issues facing Russian departments in the National Capital Area are a subset of the national discussion of part-time instruction in higher education. Sweeping solutions are already on the table. Contributors to the *ADFL Bulletin* and the *ADFL Guidelines* themselves present the most quixotic of resolutions. Unless noted, all of the following are taken from the 1994 *ADFL Guidelines* (my emphasis below).

- As tenured faculty members re[illegible] they should be replaced by tenure-track faculty members. Departments that routinely assign a large part of undergraduate instruction to adjunct faculty members should reconsider their staffing practices.
- Adjunct faculty members should be *hired*, reviewed, and given teaching assignments according to *processes comparable to those established for the tenured or tenure-track faculty members*.
- They should be paid *prorated salaries and receive basic benefits such as health insurance*.
- They should be eligible for incentives that foster professional development, including merit raises and *funds for research and travel.*
- Tenured and tenure-track professors must bear the weight of lower-division teaching (Lindenberger 1998; Ziolkowski 1998), even if they must be moved from teaching literature courses to teaching language (Berry 1996).
- Language departments should not have part-timers and other academic teaching staff with no academic standing (Bernhardt 1997).

In touting these proposals, we in the profession know full well that they are unrealistic. Departments that should "reconsider their staffing practices" usually do not have that kind of financial flexibility. To place part-time hiring practices on a par with those established for the tenured or tenure-track faculty members suggests funded national searches. The notion that senior faculty should retool for the first-year classroom implies that any inspired literature scholar can become an outstanding foreign language teacher. One of the reasons that part-time foreign language teachers are in their current predicament stems from the notion that anyone with an advanced degree and a background in the target language can do it.

The answers from the dean's office are blunt: part-timers are available at the pay scale offered. Abandoning part-time instruction would mean closing down courses with marginal enrollments. Part-timers keep tuition within some sort of limits while maintaining the required amount of physical plant and hardware expansion.

The need to reduce the risk of hiring part-timers and the need to bring a measure of stability to staffing prompts two feasible solutions. Both add to Langenberg's "subfaculty," discussed earlier. Both require compromise—on the part of the dean and the departments.

Solution #1: The "Mega-Teacher"

A mega-teacher's position, a full-time non-tenured position that is continuing (contingent on funding), combines the equivalent of four part-time slots (at $17,000 annually with no benefits) into one full-time "workhorse" slot: eight semester-long courses a year at $35,000 with benefits and other regular full-time privileges, such as travel money for conferences and voting representation at general faculty meetings. Such a job has no publishing expectations, and the teacher is responsible for some multi-section coordination (e.g., planning week-by-week learning objectives, arranging cross-section oral testing, scheduling peer tutoring, etc.) and extra-curricular activities (Russian Language Club, Russian Language Honor Society, and so forth).

What arguments can convince a dean to double the per-course cash salary and add benefits for what appears to be the same amount of teaching? What can allay the dean's fears about the creeping permanence of such a position?

To begin with, such a position provides the dean and the department a better grip on stable talent with undivided loyalties. Eight semester-long courses per year plus the extra duties suggested above is a bargain. Moreover (and perhaps more importantly these days), it gives the administration a place to spend the money fashionably: faculty development in using technology for teaching. Regular non-tenure track faculty can be viewed as the best candidates for in-service development. Administrators justifiably feel that the cost of proficiency training and technology workshops is wasted on non-permanent part-timers. Even newly hired assistant professors have little incentive to do in-service training if it takes them away from the demands of publishable research; senior faculty, with established research agendas, are less likely to take advantage of additional training (technology, curriculum development, testing, etc.) to revamp instruction on a large scale. Additional service training for the "mega-teacher" thus becomes a matter of value-added pragmatism.

Deans often fear that regular full-time positions spanning six years or more can lead to an expectation of tenurability, even if the job description reads "non-tenure accruing." That may lead to contract stipulations that newly created regular full-time positions be limited to terms of six years. Even when the six-year tradition is set aside, the vagaries of Russian enrollments hang over "mega-teachers" as a threat to the continuation of such positions. Here language program directors must be willing to make concessions about the school's ability to terminate such a position.

At the same time, the additional skills that mega-teachers acquire through funded training raise their intrinsic teaching value and lessen the risk that their contracts will be summarily discontinued on the basis of enrollment alone. Potential alternative assignments include projects centering around technology in the foreign language classroom, the use of foreign languages across the curriculum, and even school-wide student advising. All of these time-intensive endeavors are suited to those faculty members whose main interests and talents remain closest to the classroom.

From the point of view of the department and the profession as a whole, does such a position not represent an ignominious retreat from academic professionalism in teaching foreign languages, confirming to the administration that we are essentially service departments? Clearly, this is a step back from the notion that every practicing language teacher be in a tenure-track position. However, we should not lose sight of the current situation: nationwide 37.1% of our foreign language courses in four-year colleges are staffed by part-timers (Benjamin 1998), and for Russian in the National Capital Area, that number tops 51% in colleges where part-timers and full-timers work side by side. With a nationwide rise in the number of part-time college teachers plus lowered enrollments in Slavics, changing part-timers into non-tenured full-timers is a major advance. Still, ethical questions remain: a non-tenure-track "contingency" full-timer receives only three-fourths of the cash salary of a beginning assistant professor.

However, this is surely an improvement over a stable of part-timers whose compensation is just a bit more than symbolic.

Staffing the position of "mega-teacher" is not without pitfalls. With the dearth of jobs in Slavics, a department can expect to see up to a hundred applications, most from ABDs or recent Ph.D.s hoping for a "real" job elsewhere—perhaps after completing a dissertation or producing a few publications. A more suitable candidate is likely to be one of the current part-timers who has managed to make a distinguished teaching career and deserves promotion.

Solution #2: Regular Part-Time Positions

Two respondents in the survey reported that regular part-time faculty typically teach at least two courses per year for at least $15,000 per year (typically $3750 per semester course) with benefits. Any additional courses are pro-rated. Expenditures on regular part-time faculty come to roughly double those required for per-course part-time instructors. The advantage to both the departments and the dean is a modicum of stability without a loss of flexibility (read: ability to eliminate the position) for the administration. However, the added likelihood of stability makes in-service investments at least a marginally acceptable expenditure of resources. Finally, regular part-time positions provide some reliable wiggle room for those last-minute unscheduled events that lead to perilous frantic hiring.

Even with these solutions in place (as in two schools in the National Capital Area), the lone-course part-timer who gets $2500 per course will continue to maintain a presence because of the volatility of enrollments. The suggestions here are meant only to reduce the number of such positions to a respectable distance below the halfway mark.

Conclusion

Looking beyond the National Capital Area to the profession as a whole, we do not have to ponder hard to see the need for a compromise leading to a "respectable" second tier of language teaching practitioners. We are at the dawn of an age in which institutions will turn increasingly from the economies of scale of large professorial lecture courses to courseware and electronically distributed instruction. Well-taught foreign language courses, while supported by multimedia delivered over great distances, will continue to demand relatively large amounts of face-to-face contact in small groups. The economics of such labor-intensive instruction will perpetuate a two-tiered faculty in many institutions. As long as academia makes published research the guidepost for tenure and promotion, highly competent foreign language teachers will remain in the second tier. The issue before us is whether we can arrive at a compromise whereby that second tier is afforded even minimal conditions so that all win: the teachers, the students, the departments, and the institutions at large. Such an arrangement is not alien to the system of higher education at top universities in many other foreign countries, nor is it unrealistic for us.

Notes

1. Gappa and Leslie (1997) and Leslie (1997) are among many who provide statistics for all disciplines over various periods since the 1960s.
2. The policy statements on the use of part-time faculty from the ADFL (1994) and ADE (1998) are among the most widely circulated and broad-based of such papers to appear recently.
3. The institutions are located inside the Capital Beltway, with one exception just beyond the Beltway. The promise of no attribution to individual institutions increased the respondents' willingness to provide information.
4. While the National Capital Area job market supports the kind of high standards for Russian cited here, the same is not always true for other Slavic languages, at least in the one area school that regularly offers them. Czech and Polish courses, usually in the hands of experienced language pedagogues, are currently reported as being staffed by teachers with minimal experience.

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Language Teaching: Raising Expectations for Instructor Preparation

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Too familiar to merit discussion, so simple that virtually anyone is expected to be able to do it, paradoxically so difficult to do well that we are almost universally disappointed with the results, yet still of insufficient interest to be accorded time and attention in Ph.D. programs—language teaching continues to be viewed as the problem child of language and literature departments. In spite of the number of literature scholars who find themselves teaching language, preparation to teach language is viewed with little enthusiasm in most graduate programs. For far too many students, Kaplan's (1993) experience in a French literature Ph.D. program is frustratingly familiar: "None of us was prepared to deal with the difference between our training and our actual work, teaching French" (p. 166).

Efforts to think more seriously about the preparation of Ph.D.s who will teach language often collide with the survival interests of a department's literature faculty. In a graduate program with a limited number of requirements and pressure to keep students progressing satisfactorily to the degree, allocating more time to preparation for language teaching could easily result in a reduction in literature study—potentially weakening graduate students' preparation in literature and almost certainly reducing course enrollments for the literature faculty. Literature specialists quite understandably favor the study of literature, readily admitting that they are not experts in language teaching (nor do they want to be, nor do they want their best students to be, since their students' accomplishments reflect back on them and the status of themselves and their programs).

I am grateful to an anonymous reviewer for alerting me to a document produced by the Commission on Professional Standards of the American Association of Teachers of French, "The Teaching of French: A Syllabus of Competence" (Murphy 1987). The document uses the term "competence" somewhat differently than I do here but asserts the importance of competence in the areas of culture, language proficiency, linguistics, literature, and methodology.

The result is something like a vicious circle. Graduate students depend on their department faculty to prepare them, but literature faculty have an important stake in emphasizing literature over language study. Administrators readily admit that they have to rely on department faculty (that is, primarily literature specialists) for guidance in defining faculty lines and ultimately in approving hiring requests and decisions, and budgets are always tight. If adding a position for the preparation of graduate students in language means giving up a literature position, literature faculty have little incentive to agree. Neither are promotion and tenure requirements necessarily clear for such new faculty in language (nor in many cases do workloads leave time for research and publication). Too often the solution is to hire language faculty at the lecturer rank, placing yet more obstacles in the way of preparation of graduate students to teach language. Lecturers are too frequently disenfranchised and prevented from setting policy or holding leadership roles in their departments. They may not even be consulted about language preparation or expectations for graduate students, and if lecturers do work with graduate student TAs, their lack of rank and status may severely hamper their efforts. In the end, those who have power typically do not have sufficient incentive to address the problem of the preparation of language teachers, and those who have incentive do not have the power. Unfortunately, the latter group may have grown so accustomed to their marginalized role that even if they were to find themselves in positions of power they might not be able to envision truly significant change.

When new Ph.D.s emerge from such programs to be hired as new faculty, even if they have had some experience as TAs in language teaching, their "expertise" may have been acquired largely on the job, through trial and error, and often with little time for contact with research and scholarship on language teaching and learning. Although these new faculty may be enthusiastic teachers, they remain poorly prepared, not only for their own career in language teaching, but also for participation in policy-making and hiring decisions in their departments. When these faculty find themselves on hiring committees the cycle begins again; they may be no better informed about language teacher preparation than they were when they were graduate students. Aware of the gaps in their own background, they read the applications of candidates with preparation similar to their own and wonder, "What should we be looking for?"

Revealingly, the question "What should we be looking for?" is open to at least two interpretations. The first reading accepts the current situation in language hiring to ask, "Given current possibilities, what combination of candidate strengths is best?" The second reading rejects the current situation to ask, "Instead of what we have now, what *should* we be asking for?" In the discussion below I will take the second position in order to suggest an expanded potential for the first. That is, I will argue for considerably higher expectations for the qualifications of language teachers. I realize that higher expectations will be difficult to meet under current conditions of teacher preparation, but my intent is to focus attention on what preparation could offer, and in my opinion, what it *should* offer.

Since efforts to address issues of teacher preparation quickly confront tacit assumptions about language teaching, I will at times draw on the experience of literature training and hiring as a parallel in order to identify some of these tacit assumptions and provoke questions. What I want to point out is the dramatic difference in expectations we encounter when comparing the preparation for teaching language to the preparation for the teaching of literature or linguistics. Language teaching is *not* so simple that virtually anyone can do it, but as long as we treat it that way, we have no right to complain about the results and their consequences (including low enrollments in literature classes taught in the foreign language, the under-preparedness of students in those classes, and the frustration of students unhappy with their level of achievement in language classes). In the following discussion I will first contrast language preparation to literature preparation by outlining a higher set of expectations for language teachers, then translate that outline into a sample of the kinds of questions that we should be asking language job candidates to be able to answer.

A note on the pairing of language with literature. I have chosen to use literature for comparison because it is the most common degree background for college language teaching and because I see no sign that this situation is likely to change in the near future. My choice of literature does not exclude potential pairings with linguistics, anthropology, history, or other disciplines and in the following discussion "literature" could be replaced by any of these other disciplines, with corresponding adjustments in content. The larger question, of which departments and programs *should* be responsible for preparing language instructors, is far too complex to go into here. Although second language acquisition (SLA) is often cited as a likely candidate, even a brief glance at the scholarship of SLA indicates that as currently conceived it is not centrally concerned with the complex and inseparable cultural components of language teaching, including specific cultural meanings, interpretations, cross-cultural comparisons, and the integral relevance of cultural texts to language knowledge, but rather with the question of how learners acquire (or lose) a second or foreign language (whether in classroom settings or non-classroom settings).

Although the range of cultural knowledge required for expert language instruction is broader than any one discipline, the connection with cultural texts is extremely important. Given current institutional structures in which no departmental home is ideal, language and literature departments continue to provide potentially broader resources than other locations. This fact, rather than any personal preference, is the reason for the comparison I have chosen to use here.

One more qualification: Advocacy for higher expectations for language instructors does not entail making that preparation an obligatory part of the graduate language and literature program (although personally I would recommend it to most students). Like other decisions, this choice should be an available option, ideally to be viewed as a necessity for those who wish to be qualified to teach language (and not so for those who do not). In an ideal world, individuals without preparation to teach language would not be hired to teach language, just as individuals without qualification in other disciplines are limited in what they can be hired to teach. The strongest job candidates would be prepared in two subfields, e.g., literature *and* language. As long as we expect disciplinary study "in the original language" there will be a need for a versatile professoriate that can integrate the study of language, literature, and culture, and this fact deserves corresponding attention in the Ph.D. programs that prepare the professoriate for its scholarly and professional responsibilities.

Content Focus

In their preparation to be literature specialists, it is normal for students to select certain content areas such as genres, authors, periods, or interest in literary theory. While there may be heated debate about the validity of such classification, there is no contention that literature study is without content. By comparison, language study is often considered to be "skills only," without content of its own. One of the most dangerous and damaging misconceptions about language teaching is the implicit belief that good language teaching has mostly to do with technique. Far too many faculty and administrators naively imagine that the most important attributes of a successful language instructor are native or near-native fluency, lively techniques, and a kind and encouraging personality. Even the usual designation "teacher training" implies a focus on performance that is often distorted to represent technique as its most important aspect. Of course, "technique" is important for any successful teaching, but as in all college-level instruction, at the heart of good teaching is *knowledge*.

Knowledge Base of the Language Instructor

Perhaps because it is uncommon to talk about language in terms of content knowledge, there is no commonly accepted schema for this task. One possibility is an eight-part schema that includes three of the competences proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and modified by Canale (1983), further amended to add "cultural" competence, plus the traditional four skills of language study, to yield the following (Chaput 1996):

Competences
Grammatical
  (Grammar and Lexicon)
Socio-linguistic
Discourse
Cultural

Skills
Speaking
Listening
Reading
Writing

This schema is by no means perfect, but it allows us to talk about the content of language study with some sense of structure.

Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence as defined by Canale (1983) is "the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances," including aspects of phonology, orthography, vocabulary, word formation, and sentence formation (p. 7). In connection with language instruction, grammatical competence is often interpreted to mean native-level ability, but I am aware of no studies that demonstrate that students learn more or more accurately from a native speaker than from a competent non-native. Moreover, students quickly become frustrated when teachers cannot present and explain grammar in ways that allow students to master[1] grammatical patterns for their own language production. For much grammar, what is important is less the ability to model correct usage (since models can be found in many sources beyond the individual teacher) than descriptive and analytical knowledge of grammar that allows the teacher to structure its presentation in effective ways. How this is done will depend greatly on the language and the nature of its grammatical constructions. It will also depend on the learning styles of the students in the class, since there is increasing evidence to support the importance of material being presented in modes that facilitate student learning (see, for example, Ehrman and Oxford 1990; Entwistle 1981; Leaver 1993; Oxford 1990). We can assume that teachers will encounter the full range of learning styles, which means that they must be prepared to present grammar in multiple ways.

An analytical knowledge of grammar is therefore an important resource that will aid the instructor in choosing what and how to teach. The teacher will not necessarily choose to teach grammar in analytical ways, but rather such analytical knowledge will be part of the teacher's knowledge base, to be drawn on as necessary for effective teaching. To assist students who are highly analytical, that knowledge may be required for direct instruction, if not in the classroom, then in handouts or in office hours. So, too, will grammar need to be presented in communicative frameworks, orally, visually, exemplified, explained, and interactively practiced. Knowledge of grammar will shape the sequence of topics presented, assisting the teacher in finding a sequence that promotes the quickest progress with the greatest communicative potential and the fewest obstacles. As an example, Rutherford and Smith (1988) discuss the relative difficulty of acquiring patterns for the use of subject pronouns in Spanish and English (based on White [1984]). They conclude that the complexity of the task for Spanish learners of English dictates that instruction will need to be *explicit*, while for English learners of Spanish the simpler pattern of optional omission can be handled *implicitly*. The choice of explicit vs. implicit instruction will have consequences not only for the nature of the presentation, but also for avoiding the "mountain out of a molehill" effect, when the explicit teaching of implicitly acquirable patterns creates unnecessary confusion which then requires time-consuming explicit correction and instruction. Conversely, implicit treatments of conceptually complex topics leave students confused and often unable to progress toward desirable levels of grammatical competence.

A language teacher should be expected to have a growing expertise and interest in all relevant aspects of the grammar of the second language (L2) as necessary for effective teaching. Ideally this knowledge will include phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Indeed, outside of the Romance and Germanic language families, much of the burden of language instruction (for example, in Slavic and Asian languages) has been borne by linguists, and many language instructors in those fields continue to be active investigators of the languages they teach. The importance of this knowledge should not be misunderstood to mean that instructors will be *teaching* descriptive phonology, morphology, syntax, etc.—rather, that by understanding morphological, syntactic, and other patterns, they are able to shape their language teaching in more productive ways.[2] As a vivid example, Russian conjugation has been viewed as having thousands of "irregular" forms (Powers 1968), yet an understanding of morphology allows the patterns of regularity to become evident and the number of irregular verbs reduced to 26 (Townsend 1975), or even 19 (Garza 1994). In some languages (e.g., Sanskrit) the teaching of phonology and morphology is routine, and indeed it is difficult to imagine how Sanskrit could be taught otherwise. Yet in modern languages we often find the baby thrown out with the bathwater—an avoidance of linguistic description as if it threatens a return to grammar-translation, rather than an investigation of grammar's benefit as an organizational tool for more successful language learning.

A tacit assumption that remains prevalent (outside of language and SLA fields) is that all that language students really need is sufficient exposure and practice. Advocates of this view often minimize the role of college language instruction and see the solution in sending students abroad to study, "immersed" in the language and culture. There is no doubt that such immersion is beneficial, but there is also evidence that the length and quality of instruction before students go abroad will have significant impact on the success of their learning (Brecht et al. 1993). In fact, the most important factor for Russian acquisition during study abroad turns out to be precisely students' knowledge of grammar before they go:

> The data in the current study provide the first empirical evidence that investment in grammar instruction in the early years of instruction may result in advances in speaking and listening skills at the upper-intermediate and advanced levels. . . . These data . . . underline the necessity to keep knowledge of grammar an equal partner in the goals of learning and instruction—not only for the skills they directly represent, but also for the good that accuracy does in advancing speaking and listening (p. 21).

Indeed there is considerable research and scholarship that supports the importance of grammar in language instruction (see, for example, Rutherford and Smith [1988]).

An obstacle to discussions of the role of grammar in language instruction arises from the touching of emotional chords for students and faculty alike. It is human nature to recall personal experiences learning language and to generalize that experience to others. The experience of poorly, painfully, or excessively taught grammar, as well as experience with the failures of grammar-translation, can lead individuals to reject the explicit teaching of grammar in courses of today. Such a confusion of *how* grammar is taught with *why* it is taught can have serious consequences for the success of language study. Grammar is an essential organizing tool in human language, a network of conventions that allows individuals to communicate meaning with relative reliability. Without grammar, communication would be impossible. Grammar is no more than a set of patterns that allows speakers to identify the relationships between words. It seems only common sense to teach language so that such patterns are evident to student-learners, rather than keeping them secret and hoping that students will stumble onto the correct patterns on their own. Interestingly, students at intermediate levels of language study often judge their own grammar knowledge to be too weak and put grammar high on their list of priorities (e.g., Ke 1995). The role of grammar in language study should not be as goal (i.e., linguistic description), but rather as tool (for accurate and successful comprehension and production), and in turn the teacher's knowledge of grammar will be an essential resource to be used as a tool in structuring language study to facilitate student mastery of essential patterns.

Lexical Knowledge

For Canale lexical knowledge is part of grammatical competence, but I have separated it here because of its crucial importance. Lexical knowledge is one of the richest content areas of language study. The continuing debate about whether vocabulary should only be learned in context or organized into lists completely misses the crucial point that students must have access to the culturally specific meanings of words and their networks of associations. E. D. Hirsch (1987) called attention to the importance of lexical knowledge in reading comprehension, and his notion of cultural literacy remains controversial in part because of its dynamic nature. Word meaning is dependent on the communities and contexts of usage, so that to know what an L2 word means is not merely to know its L1 equivalent—that is, what the L1 form means to L1 speakers of a given community—but rather to know something about its tradition of usage (and therefore its "meaning") among speakers of the L2. Lexical meaning is constructed in implicit contracts between speakers, based on shared experience. That experience can include associations of many kinds: historical, political, ideological, cultural (in the form of cultural values), temporal, regional, attitudinal (e.g., positive or negative), textual, and many more. The anthropologist Becker (1992) calls the absence of this knowledge for language learners "the silence of memory." He writes, "*Everything* anyone says has a history . . . But when you speak a foreign language, everything is contemporary, for outsiders have very little memory in that new language and its past is silent" (p. 117). It is just this kind of silence that emigrée Eva Hoffman (1989) has in mind in her memoir when she describes how the lack of a shared American experience prevents her from understanding her boyfriend's unhappiness:

> My head pounds with the effort of understanding. The words my Texan speaks come out from some unknown place; I can't tell what burden of feeling infuses them, what has led up to this pass, to their youthful extremity. Maybe if I could imagine his childhood, and the loneliness, and the great nothingness he speaks of, I would know the meaning of his words to him . . . But . . . the pictures he draws are stark and melodramatic in my mind, because I don't know the stuff of the lives that fill them (p. 187).

A language absent of its history, whether national or personal, is only a substitute code for the L1. In order to interact with L2 speakers it is essential to be aware of the existence of the history that constitutes meaning, to be sensitive to how words "mean" through being symbolic representations of the L2/C2 experience. A revealing example from the Soviet Russian experience as described by Boym (1994) links the personal level to larger social and cultural perspectives:

> What is shared is silence, tone of voice, nuance of intonation. To say a full word is to say too much . . . This peculiar form of communication "with halfwords" is a mark of belonging to an imagined community that exists on the margin of the official public sphere. Hence the American metaphors for being sincere and authentic—"saying what you mean," "going public," and "being straightforward"—do not translate properly into the Soviet and Russian contexts. "Saying what you mean" could be interpreted as being stupid, naive, or not streetwise. Such a profession of sincerity could be seen, at best, as a sign of foreign theatrical behavior; at worst, as a cunning provocation. There is no word for authenticity in Russian, but there are two words for truth: *pravda* and *istina*. It is possible to tell the truth (*pravda*) but *istina* . . . must remain unarticulated. In this form of indirect communication, quasi-religious attitudes toward language, devices of romantic poetry, revolutionary underground conspiracies, and tactics of dissident intelligentsia strangely converge (p. 1).

This type of cultural knowledge is precisely why language study is so often said to be the key to cultural understanding. It is not the ability to engage in primitive communication with L2 speakers that provides access to a foreign culture, but rather that by getting *inside* the language, exploring meanings in L2 terms (rather than as translations of L1), students begin to gain access to cultural values and perspectives that would be masked by L1 translation (with its accompanying networks of L1 history and associations).[3]

The language instructor plays a crucial role in making students aware of the content knowledge of language, specifically in guiding students to learn lexical meanings appropriate to the L2/C2. Without guidance, how are students to know where similarities and differences exist? How can they tell, especially at the beginning stages of language study, whether their assumptions about word meaning are justified? Without the teacher's intervention we are left with several unappealing choices: (a) allow students to learn vocabulary incorrectly, as new labels for L1 meanings; (b) alert students to the problem of lexical meaning and hope that they figure out for themselves what words mean; (c) decide that the problem is too great to deal with in college classes and postpone it for "later," perhaps for students to do (or not do) on their own in study abroad; (d) simply ignore the problem and pretend it doesn't exist.

As with grammar, the importance and complexity of lexical meaning does not mean that teachers should be delivering lectures. Rather, they will have to be skilled in finding ways to introduce and teach the lexicon (through objects, pictures, examples, and texts, rather than simple lists) so that students begin to acquire a vocabulary that will allow accurate and successful communication with L2 speakers and writers, and to do so within the time constraints of college courses.

Socio-Linguistic Competence

According to Canale (1983),

> Socio-linguistic competence . . . addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood *appropriately* in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction . . . Appropriateness of utterances refers to both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form. Appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas are judged to be proper in a given situation. . . . Appropriateness of form concerns the extent to which a given meaning (including communicative functions, attitudes and propositions/ideas) is represented in a verbal and/or non-verbal form that is proper in a given sociolinguistic context (p. 7).

Beyond "knowing" appropriate behavior, teachers need to be able to articulate the structures of social rituals, their scripted behaviors, the formulas required, perspectives on behaviors as optional or obligatory, and how the behaviors might reflect deeper cultural values. Hoffman's (1989) emigre experience provides another example:

> There are some turns of phrase to which I develop strange allergies. "You're welcome," for example strikes me as a gaucherie, and I can hardly bring myself to say it—I suppose because it implies that there's something to be thanked for, which in Polish would be impolite. The very places where language is at its most conventional, where it should be most taken for granted, are the places where I feel the prick of artifice . . . (p. 106).

Thus the "silence of memory" that Becker notes applies equally to socio-linguistic topics and behaviors, and this ground is even more unstable. Social behaviors are affected by the age of participants, class, ideology, ethnic and religious background, regional differences, degrees of intimacy and social "register" (not an exhaustive list). As with the lexicon, if such knowledge is not incorporated into coursework, prioritized, and "taught" in some effective way, students will be left to grapple with incorrect assumptions and misapprehensions on their own, risking behaving rudely or inconsiderately even with the best of intentions. At worst, students will decide that such behaviors "don't matter," or perhaps insensitively assume that their cultural ways are "better" and therefore justifiably imposed on their C2 interlocutors.[4]

Discourse Competence

Knowledge of discourse competence varies dramatically among languages taught, since for many languages discourse patterns have only begun to be studied. The lack of explicit knowledge does not make these patterns any less significant, and native L2 speakers will immediately sense differences in style and register, phrasings appropriate to some discourses but inappropriate to others, special uses of discourse-specific devices and phrasings for ironic, artistic, or other special effect. (For example, without such knowledge, parody is unrecognizable.) In conversation and debate in the L2, students will require at least a minimal repertoire of phrases that allow them to hold the floor, interrupt, summarize, rephrase, buy time for thought, and other essential conversational gambits (Kramsch 1981). If students are to become sensitive to the meanings conveyed by discourse conventions and eventually to master at least a partial repertoire, they will need to study the differences and eventually to choose to use (or avoid) conventions for their personal communicative purposes. Once again, the knowledge behind the curtain of the "silence of memory" is part of the knowledge content of language study, and therefore an important concern of language instructors.

Cultural Competence

Culture competence is not a category identified by Canale (1983), who could correctly argue that all of the competences are cultural. However, by omitting a specific category of cultural competence it would be too easy for many aspects of both high and low culture to be seen as peripheral qualifications on the competences already discussed. Designating cultural competence draws attention to the importance of traditional aspects and artifacts of culture, from anthropological perspectives on deep culture (e.g., Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961; Geertz 1973; see also Chaput 1997; Ortuño 1991) to popular and intellectual perspectives on the high culture of literature and the arts, and the cultural importance of perspectives and values incorporated in cultural views of history. In the United States, authors such as Richard Shenkman point to the importance of historical myths in defining and supporting national identity. Shenkman (1991) writes, "The danger is not that we have myths. They tell us who we are and what we cherish and all people have them. The danger is hiding from the fact that they are myths" (p. xii). In studying the cultural heritage of speakers of L2 it will be important to become acquainted with each nation's or community's historical heritage as seen from different perspectives in order to separate and contextualize C1 interpretations[5] of events (which may be more familiar to students) from the C2 interpretations themselves. Human knowledge in the humanities is inevitably viewed through a cultural lens, and popular interpretations are important in maintaining the cultural myths that represent significant values to a culture at a given period in time. "Knowing history" must be recognized as a social construction; understanding another culture requires understanding C2 perceptions of C2 history as well as the contributions of those perceptions to national attitudes. Similarly, reading a work of foreign literature through an American cultural lens is a very different experience from trying to see that same work in the terms in which it has been received by the L2 reading public. Contrasting two cultural readings increases the potential for insight into both the work itself and the culture in which it was produced, as well as stimulating reflection on the attitudes and values of the native culture.

The Four Skills

The four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing are better known and therefore require less comment. What does deserve note is that language instructors, as experts in their fields, should have more to offer hiring committees than anecdotal or personal experience in the development of these skills. There exist good introductions to teaching language written by such authors as Lee and VanPatten (1995), Omaggio Hadley (1993), Cook (1991), Brown (1987), Rivers (1983), Stevick (1982), and others that provide overviews of new and old perspectives on the acquisition of skills. So are there numerous specialized books on single skill areas, many of which can be found listed in the bibliographies of these introductory volumes. Well-prepared language instructor candidates should be able to discuss the acquisition of skills with some reference to both tradition and research efforts. When each new instructor is an autodidact, learning in the classroom by trial and error, there is always the danger that discredited techniques will be repeated again and again by different individuals in different venues, each time as an isolated "innovation" and with optimistic hopes for success. Rutherford (1988) provides a painful reminder of the cyclical history of methods of language instruction. His description of "vernaculars as cultural vehicles" and of a time when language learning "drew a distinction between the study of grammar and of literature . . . and relied on an inductive methodology" sounds quite modern, yet he is speaking about the Renaissance (p. 16).[6] If language instructors are truly expert, they should be at least minimally aware that "virtually every contemporary 'innovation' in language teaching seems to have an antecedent somewhere back in the 2,500-year history of language pedagogy" (p. 17) and that recent research both credits and discredits age-old assumptions that for centuries have been supported by little more than intuition and optimism.

The Role of "Techniques"

Language teaching techniques can be evaluated only in reference to their intended goals, whether these are language and cultural knowledge (competences), skill development, or both simultaneously. Moreover, the relationship between technique and goal is not always (in fact, frequently is not) transparent. Multitudes of teachers still behave in class as if drills will lead to communication, or communicative language activities will automatically lead to the acquisition of grammar. Virtue is seen in snappy drills that bear little resemblance to authentic communication and hours are spent in "communicative activities" that bore students to tears. Long-respected techniques, such as having students read aloud before translating (now discredited), are used without question, and time, that most precious classroom commodity, is often squandered with little sense of how scarce and precious it is (Chaput 1996).

Well-prepared language teachers should have given serious thought to all of these issues and shown a reluctance to adapt traditional techniques without logical or demonstrated evidence of their efficacy. Elsewhere I have advocated a principal called "Backward Planning," which means that it is advantageous to begin with goals and objectives, and then to work backward to see what is necessary to reach those goals (Chaput 1996). If the objective is spontaneous communication ("encoding personal meaning"), even if on very limited topics, then spontaneous communication *must* be practiced in class. To reach that level students will need much more than memorized phrases and snatches from dialogues; they will need to be able to construct meaning from existing resources (within limitations), which suggests that they will need sufficient command of the grammar and vocabulary to be able to combine and recombine it for their own purposes. This in turn suggests that they will need more than controlled exercises, since they will need practice in combining and recombining. But to overemphasize free combination too early will only sabotage the development of accuracy; accordingly, students' acquisition of the grammar and vocabulary will require some structured practice both before and during efforts at less structured expression. Structured practice in turn will depend on an understanding of relevant grammatical patterns, so that the structured practice illustrates and "teaches" the necessary patterns. Moreover, students cannot begin to combine words into phrases until they have a sense of the words (or phrases) and their appropriate pronunciation, ensuring that the "sound image" of words and phrases is relatively stable in their minds, especially if forms go through different morphological and phonological permutations in different syntactic combinations.

There is no single plan by which a language instructor should map out the sequence of skill acquisition, but it is very important that the subject has been given serious thought. The alternative of random, catch-as-catch-can sequencing is not only extremely inefficient, but it leaves so much to chance (and therefore so many gaps) that the development of spontaneous communication can be frustrated and delayed. Students who are expected to embark on spontaneous communication before they can manage the topics they wish to address can in fact lose confidence rather than gain it, experience a great deal of frustration at what they can't say, and fall into discouragement or indifference.

The Role of the Textbook

Language teachers often expect to rely on textbooks to provide the expertise that they themselves lack, conceding to the textbooks responsibility for grammar explanation in chapter sections that students can read at home and then come to class prepared to practice. The problem with this attitude is that it puts the cart before the horse, or the textbook in the driver's seat, to mix metaphors deliberately. Textbooks are tools, created with the best of intentions to organize student language study, but always exhibiting the opinions, biases, and perspectives of the author and the publisher. Yet it is the language teacher who creates a course and makes the all-important decisions about what can and should be accomplished. Those decisions depend in turn on many factors, including the size of a program, expectations of faculty and students, whether students want to study a given language for instrumental or enrichment purposes (or both), how long students will study, what course options the language sequence presents, whether study abroad is expected or required, what textbooks, technology, and other resource materials are available, and numerous other factors. Textbooks are only one part of this larger picture, and while admittedly at the introductory level a fairly dominant tool, still only a tool at the teacher's disposal.

Language instructors need to have a sense of alternatives, a means of sorting out appropriate goals, and the ability to select a textbook that will be appropriate for reaching those goals. If no appropriate textbook is available, instructors need to be able to consider their options, the advantages and disadvantages of other materials that might be available, or the necessity of modifying course goals. Instructors should also be prepared to supplement textbooks if necessary, but only insofar as supplementation *is* necessary and can be provided in neat and organized form. In courses with masses of handouts, students may need help organizing the material so they can find and refer back to relevant material quickly. The textbook-handout "interface" also requires attention, so that students do not find themselves forced to reconcile what appears to be conflicting information or explanations (resulting in almost certain confusion). On a very practical level, the more of their study time students spend shuffling through paper, looking for answers and trying to sort out confusion, the less time they will have for productive language study.

Native, Near-Native, and Not-So-Native Instructor Proficiency

Attitudes toward instructor proficiency are often determined by tradition more than by reasoned argument. Kaplan (1993) remarks, "You can't work in a French department for long without wondering whether our attachment to French isn't pathological. Both the native speakers and the Americans suffer under a system where language skills are made a fetish" (p. 178). Why should we cling to the assumption that the best language instructors are necessarily native speakers? Listed below are some frequent assumptions with commentary:

1. Native-level speech provides better models for classroom imitation.

True, but how many minutes will the instructor be speaking? If language (as taught in college courses) develops through structured practice all the way to the level of spontaneous communication, then class is the one certain time in which speakers can interact in ways that are spontaneous and not predictable. Structured practice and modeling are things that *can* be offered outside of class, in audio, video, and sometimes multimedia materials, and for more substantial periods of time. During class is when students should probably be speaking more than listening, since a large part of listening practice can be accomplished outside of class time.

2. Native speakers can model and therefore correct pronunciation more accurately.

True again that they can model pronunciation, but is class the best time to work intensively on pronunciation practice? Many students are frustrated and/or profoundly embarrassed by public correction of their pronunciation, and others will hang on to their L1 accents no matter how much native L2 they hear. It is likely that there are better ways to address pronunciation, perhaps in a combination of language lab and individual consultations.

3. Native speakers speak accurately, preventing students from hearing mistakes.

Surely no one still believes that hearing accurate L2 spoken magically results in accurate L2 production. Accurate L2 production is the result of many factors, including student aptitude, study habits, exposure, presentation, practice, opportunities for meaningful expression, and many others that can be addressed by any competent and *knowledgeable* language instructor, regardless of that individual's "native-level" ability. Naturally instructors must possess sufficient proficiency for the level of language they will teach, able to speak fluently and accurately, for example, at a level sufficient for introductory or intermediate classes of Spanish. But the claim that hearing non-native speech will be detrimental to students' language development has not been proved in practice, nor would we expect it to be true as long as students have ample exposure to native speech in recordings and videos, and as long as the instructor's pronunciation and accuracy is judged near enough to be acceptable.

Moreover, there is a psychological benefit to having non-native instructors teach class groups composed of foreign language (non-heritage) students. An exclusively native-speaking faculty communicates an implicit message that the language cannot be adequately learned by non-natives. When non-native instructors teach, especially at introductory and intermediate levels, they provide a psychological boost to their students, living proof that the language can be mastered and role models for the students in their classes.

4. Native speakers know grammar better than non-natives.

Again, if "know" means "speak accurately and idiomatically," then native speakers have an advantage. But if "know" means the ability to present and explain grammar and vocabulary, non-natives may have a greater advantage. Their own learning experience provides many insights into the kinds of presentations and explanations that work (and don't work), and as a result they are better able to anticipate potential difficulties. Non-native knowledge of grammar is often more systematic, organized for language students rather than adult speakers. Even when both natives and non-natives have taken coursework to prepare them to teach grammar, non-natives still have the advantage of years of experience learning it, including their own successes in finding ways to master difficult topics.

5. Native speakers know culture better than non-natives.

Almost certainly true, unless the non-native has been high school educated in the country of the L2. But if culture is best taught contrastively (Brière 1986; Byram and Esarte-Sarries 1991; Hymes 1962; Peck 1992; Saville-Troike 1982, among others), then non-natives may have the advantage of experience in more explicit cross-cultural contrast and comparison. Native speakers have lived the culture, but teaching requires identification and articulation of cross-cultural differences (and similarities). Relevant cultural perspectives of anthropologists, historians, literature specialists, art historians and others are all accessible to the non-native as well as to the native. Moreover, since it is clearly impossible for any one individual to know all that there is to be known, all instructors, whether native or non-native, will present different profiles, different configurations of strengths. It makes sense for departments to seek a balance of strengths and to give thought to the reasons for privileging some particular strengths or qualifications over others.

6. Native speakers and the culture of the academic institution. A frequent disadvantage of emigre native-speaker hiring is the risk of isolation of language programs and even some language and literature programs. Academic culture is distinctive, requiring sociolinguistic, discourse, and cultural competence of its own. American-educated faculty have a headstart in making their way in this culture, but they still have much to learn to succeed in competing for resources, and for women, more so than men. When native-speaker instructors are monolingual and monocultural in the L2, they are likely to find themselves marginalized in matters of decision-making. When instructors are female, monocultural, and teach language at the rank of lecturer (instead of as assistant professors teaching a combination of language and literature), they face almost insurmountable obstacles in gaining inclusion into their institution's academic culture. Feelings of alienation and invisibility can demoralize teachers, discouraging them from putting in extra effort and eliminating incentives for innovation and creativity. Unappreciated, their enthusiasm may decline, leaving them fond of their students, responsible in following the textbook, but unexcited about innovation that will result in more work for them, and unmotivated to put in the kind of effort needed to improve language instruction.

The mystique surrounding the native speaker can perhaps be traced to still-prevalent naive assumptions that students learn language much as children learn their first language, exclusively or largely through exposure (or, in other words, by means of processing language input). Generations of underachieving language students should provide ample evidence that much more than exposure is involved in adult language learning.[7] Certainly "input" is extremely important, but in the limited time and artificial environment of the college classroom, that input requires thoughtful organization and repeated meaningful practice if it is to have the desired effect on student learning.

The Role of the Instructor in Creating a Language Course

During searches for literature faculty, candidates are often asked how they would structure a particular course, perhaps simply an introductory survey. Questions can address reasons behind the selection of readings, practical or theoretical approaches to the texts, kinds of assignments, formats of lecture and discussion, and various other practical aspects of course design. Savvy literature candidates will have prepared themselves to expect questions of this type and may even have prepared sample syllabi. They know that their hypothetical courses will be evaluated for their intellectual coherence and content, and also for practical construction and pedagogical features. Talking about hypothetical courses is an important opportunity for candidates to "show their stuff" and try to persuade the committee that they are the best candidate for the position.

By contrast, language instructor candidates sometimes find themselves surprised by similar questions posed in connection with language courses. Asked how they would structure an introductory or intermediate language course, they may initially respond by asking what textbook is currently used or by agreeably offering to teach whatever textbook or other materials have been chosen. Such answers reveal a passivity toward course design and a kind of assembly-line image of language teaching, with instructors interchangeable and evaluated mainly in terms of how they perform in classes of language students. But why should language courses be predetermined? The enormous range of language content that has already been described, and the fact that language study requires both knowledge acquisition and *performance* adds a dimension of difficulty that makes course design, clearly understood goals, and thoughtful prioritization and sequencing that much more important. Not only do students have to learn a significant amount of content knowledge about the meaning capabilities of L2 grammar, lexical denotation and connotation, sociolinguistic and discourse behaviors, historical, artistic, and other cultural knowledge, but they have to combine that knowledge with skills to translate it into appropriate linguistic performance. Literature undergraduates are not expected to write fiction or poetry, but language students are expected to produce meaningful speech on a variety of topics. Language, rather than being a simpler instructional task, is a complex and difficult one, yet one that continues to be mistakenly conceived in rather primitive terms.

The paradigm shift from "more of the same" (that is, better techniques, livelier dialogues, newer textbooks, and jazzy multimedia forms of traditional activities) to a willingness to reflect on and reexamine basic assumptions about language study and language teaching is an important part of what we *should* be looking for in the hiring of language teachers. Literature candidates may be surprised by questions about what they expect students to "get" out of literature study, but the question is certainly valid. Similarly valid are questions that address the fundamental expectations of language study in American institutions. Just as in literature study, there are many answers; in fact, in language there may be even more justifiable answers than in literature. Well-prepared language instructors will have thought in terms that allow multiple possibilities, seeing themselves as "proactive" in shaping course design in order to create the best possible courses for their students', their department's or their institution's aims.

Language Instruction and the Undergraduate Curriculum

Ladder-rank literature faculty will eventually find themselves serving on college and university committees and participating in policy decisions for their department and their institution. Such participation seems unsurprising, since literature faculty are members of the larger humanities faculty, who participate with natural and social science faculty in helping to shape the educational mission of their institution. Hiring committees will almost always consider a candidate's "administrative" potential, which may mean no more than the potential for sharing the burdens of student advising and routine committee work. What is significant is that such participation is assumed for literature candidates; although they arrive untutored, confidence in the appropriateness of the role smoothes entry into participation in the larger duties of college education.

Non-ladder rank language instructors, by contrast, have frequently been socialized to expect to be marginalized, excluded from policy and decision-making, and isolated from the larger academic community. The forces of such socialization are both implicit and explicit. Graduate students observe the marginalization of non-ladder-rank language faculty within their own departments and are less likely to be mentored by them and therefore to engage in the kinds of conversations that prepare students for future administrative roles. Throughout their graduate careers students are likely to hear repeated explicit messages about literature vs. language, many of which treat language teaching as a necessary evil (e.g., "Well, of course you will probably have to teach some language . . ." or "If you're lucky you won't have to teach beginning language" and so on). The usual pattern is for language teaching to be seen as unfortunate, regrettable, something the best and the brightest should be eager to avoid.

This message is unfortunate for many reasons. It reinforces the image of language study as being intellectually empty, a view that is simply wrong. After all, literature study is impossible without a rich and detailed understanding of language. Where the line between "language" and "literature" is drawn is one more social construction, and even a moment's reflection raises the question of whether a line should be drawn at all. Second, this message discourages those literature students who are genuinely interested in language from developing or demonstrating that interest publicly in their departments and in their profession. Third, this negative message discourages application of energy to improving language instruction, treating language as the responsibility of "others," although it is not clear who those others are.

Although it is not likely that the forces of socialization will be easy to change, there is no reason that the frequent lament of search committees, that candidates present strong literature credentials but little experience of preparation for language, cannot be used to put pressure on the powers that shape graduate student programs. The more that search committees ask candidates thoughtful questions about language teaching—questions to which they would like to have answers, even if they don't necessarily expect to get them—the more candidates will return to their departments to report this aspect of their interviews and their need for better preparation. The more that language instructors resist the self-imposed aspects of their marginalization and contribute to discussions of undergraduate education, the more their presence will be felt. After all, to stop thinking and talking about larger issues of undergraduate education may be a perfectly understandable human response to external exclusion ("If my opinion isn't worth asking, why should I be working so hard? I'll just do what they expect and leave the rest to them . . ."), but as an internal response it is more difficult to justify. The more that graduate programs include some mentoring to prepare students for the professional responsibilities that come with faculty rank, the better able teachers of all ranks will be to participate in discussions of curricular policy and goals.

Implications for Graduate Student Preparation

A detailed plan for a curriculum that would adequately prepare graduate students in the areas listed above is beyond the scope of this article, a maneuver on my part which may seem to beg the most important question. But indeed the question is too complex to be answered briefly. Instead I will offer two steps toward the completion of such a project, two perspectives on the kind of information that will need to be considered. First I will borrow a technique from corporate hiring (*interviewing*) to create a simplified "job profile," the purpose of which is to detail a position's responsibilities, motivational conditions, and working conditions in order better to understand obligatory and desirable candidate strengths. The profile is then translated into a detailed list of candidate strengths, which in turn forms the basis for interview questions.

To highlight the disproportion in professional training, I will indicate correspondence between graduate preparation and expected job conditions, not just for new tenure-track hires in literature, but also for non-ladder positions such as lecturer. Recall Kaplan's (1993) lament, quoted earlier: "None of us was prepared to deal with the difference between our training and our actual work, teaching French."

The following hypothetical job profile is a composite of expectations found in typical job advertisements. The assignment of items to the assistant professor vs. lecturer is impressionistic and intended to represent very general tendencies; of course there is tremendous diversity in jobs and exceptions are likely to be common. The point is that if an institution includes faculty of both ranks, non-ladder-rank faculty are more likely to be teaching courses on non-literary topics, and more likely to be left out of activities and privileges connected with departmental administration, research, and scholarship. While non-ladder faculty may continue to engage in research and publication, their work frequently is not supported by funding, time, or other resources and may not be recognized for salary increases or promotion. When resources are scarce, as with secretarial support, if available at all they usually go first to ladder faculty, and only rarely to non-ladder faculty.[8]

Hypothetical Job Profile

		in Grad Pro.	**as Asst Prof.**	**as Lecturer**
A.	*Responsibilities* (and Expectations)			
1.	Teach introductory-level language	as TA?	yes?	yes?
2.	Teach intermediate-level language	as TA?	yes?	yes?
3.	Develop new advanced courses, e.g., business or media		?	yes?
4.	Teach literature courses	*	yes?	no?
5.	Teach a civilization course		yes?	yes?
6.	Investigate and introduce new multimedia materials		?	yes?
7.	Run language tables, extracurricular activities	?	?	yes?
8.	Supervise TAs		yes?	yes?
9.	Teach methods course		?	yes?
10.	Help to restructure curriculum		yes?	no?
11.	Share in student advising		yes?	no?
12.	Departmental and institutional committee work		yes?	no?
13.	Papers and presentations at conferences	*	yes?	no?
14.	Research and publication	*	yes?	no?

–	in Grad Pro.	as Asst Prof.	as Lecturer
B. *Motivational Conditions* (Incentives/Rewards)			
Rank		Ladder	Non-ladder
Promotion		yes?	no?
Tenure (possible)		yes?	no?
Salary		By rank?	By course?
Eligible for leaves		yes?	no?
Eligible for teaching load reductions		yes?	no?
Eligible for support for conference travel		yes?	no?
C. *Working Conditions*			
Number of courses per year		4–6?	5–8?
Average class size		No difference?	
Availability of computers and technological support		yes?	no?
Secretarial support		?	no?

*Although students in literature programs study literature and write papers, preparation for the *teaching* of literature and the preparation of papers for presentation or publication are usually left to mentors or on the job learning. Some fortunate graduate students are able to teach literature discussion sections as part of faculty-taught lecture courses. More may have some exposure to language teaching, especially as TAs in beginning and intermediate-level courses.

Two particularly telling observations: (1) the list of responsibilities and expectations highlights the number of "professional duties" a new faculty member of either rank may encounter that are not part of traditional graduate preparation; (2) for Ph.D.s who take positions as lecturers, their disciplinary preparation (in literature scholarship) may be entirely absent from their responsibilities and reward structures. This means that their success as lecturers will depend primarily on preparation that has been ignored or little represented in their Ph.D. programs. This situation is particularly significant if we consider that according to the MLA's latest figures (for 1996–97), of Ph.D.s who remained in the United States and whose employment status is known, only 39.6% received tenure-track appointments, and a nearly equivalent percentage, 35.4%, took non-tenure-track appointments (Welles 2000).[9] Although graduate programs vary in placement, this statistic is alarming: nearly half of Ph.D.s who take positions in college teaching, although formally remaining in their field (language and literature), are teaching courses considered by their Ph.D. programs to be peripheral to their graduate training. Aversions to professional training aside, we have to wonder at a profession that essentially closes its eyes to the primary needs of such a significant portion of its graduates. (Neither should we ignore the lucky 39% who succeed in obtaining tenure-track positions; their teaching will inevitably be part of the tenure portfolio, even if perhaps secondary in status to research and publication.)

Interview Questions

If candidates for language teaching were to be better prepared, what would we be asking them at interviews? What kinds of questions would we pose to elicit the kind of content knowledge about language that would parallel content expectations for literature? What kinds of questions should we prepare our graduate students to answer in the course of job interviews? Below is the beginning of a list of the kinds of interview questions that might be asked to elicit information about a language instructor's knowledge base. These questions have a triple function: (1) as a guide to the kind of preparation the ideal candidate *should* present (and therefore what should be covered in course work and mentoring); (2) as samples of the kinds of questions search committees *should* be asking (although only a subset of these questions would be asked in any given interview); (3) as sample questions for graduate student job candidates to prepare for their own interviews (and to bring up for discussion in their departments, both in preparation for the job search and for possible inclusion in future graduate training).

- What do you want students to accomplish in the first year of language instruction (and why)?
- Are there things that you would ideally want to accomplish but are hindered by lack of materials? What would ideal materials consist of?
- What is your opinion of existing textbooks (and why)? If you had free choice, what textbook would you choose (and why)?
- What supplementary materials would you use (and why)?

- What is your opinion regarding current debates about the role of explicit grammar instruction in language study (and why)?
- How would you introduce [a sample grammar topic, e.g., French *imparfait*]? How would you deal with this issue for

more advanced students who are still making frequent errors?

- How would you explain/describe [a sample grammar topic, e.g., the difference between *ser* and *estar*]?
- How do you ensure that students master verb forms?
- How do you combine the development of communicative competence with the acquisition of language structure?
- What kinds of correction do you use, and why?
- How important do you think accuracy is at different levels of study?
- What do you do when you don't know the answer to a student's question about grammar?

- How do you teach vocabulary? (Explain.)
- How do you get students to avoid thinking of vocabulary in terms of cross-linguistic equivalents?
- How do you organize students' vocabulary acquisition from the textbook, readings, and other sources?
- For vocabulary practice do you rely on oral exercises? Written exercises? Other methods? (Explain.)
- Do you distinguish between the acquisition of vocabulary for reading, for aural comprehension, for speaking, and for writing?
- Are there particular techniques for vocabulary acquisition that you recommend or avoid?

- What kinds of socio-linguistic behaviors present particular problems for [the L2/C2]?
- Have you read anything from the literature of sociolinguistics about [the L2/C2] and/or U.S. culture?
- How do you deal with the dangers of stereotyping? What kinds of strategies do you suggest to combat it?
- How do you talk about culture without treating it as homogeneous and stable? How do you talk about difference within the societies of [the L2]?
- How do you think the problem of "language" vs. national cultures should be handled? (That is, for languages such as French and Spanish that are widely spoken in different

variants and in many different national cultures, how should language and culture be taught? Or, for example, Arabic, with a single classical form and mutually-incomprehensible vernaculars?)

- Do you encourage students to engage in cross-cultural comparison? Why or why not? If so, how?
- How would you handle such topics as [gender differences in language, gender differences in society, the nature and role of status distinctions, views on ethnic minorities, race, etc.]?
- What books might you recommend for students interested in further cultural exploration?
- What do you do when your own knowledge is insufficient?

- When you do think that students should begin reading?
- What should they read, and why (and when)?
- What is your understanding of how students develop the ability to read in the L2?
- What issues from research on the reading skill do you find most pertinent?
- How do you use writing in your classes?
- How do you develop the oral skills of speaking and listening?
- How important are oral skills compared to reading?
- What do you recommend to students who have a great deal of difficulty speaking?
- How do you take learning style differences into account?
- What do you think of explicit instruction on learning strategies?
- What do you do when students demonstrate difficulty in particular areas, such as aural comprehension or spelling?

- How would you describe the difference between the beginning and intermediate levels?
- How do you recommend addressing the specialized problems of heritage students?

etc.

Many more questions could be asked, to which candidates should be able to offer thoughtful responses. To explore "administrative" ability we might ask how language courses relate to other courses in the curriculum. If a candidate will teach advanced language, we need to ask specific questions about how the candidate will handle the combination of language and topic content, e.g. literature, business, current events. If candidates cannot discuss these issues thoughtfully, how prepared are they to teach them?[10] Would we hire literature specialists who could not thoughtfully discuss the interpretation and teaching of literature? Would we consider a literature candidate qualified to teach if that person had merely read literature extensively? Why would we consider a language candidate to be prepared to teach language if that person has merely "read and spoken extensively" (i.e., native or near-native ability in speaking)? We cannot ask for respect for language teaching if we are not ready to treat its preparation with the same seriousness that we exhibit toward other subjects in the college curriculum.

There is no doubt that such a list is likely to be intimidating for all involved, but that is its purpose—to highlight how low our expectations have traditionally been for teachers of language as compared to teachers in other specializations, and to point to the illogic of neglecting broader graduate-level study of language and culture in Ph.D. programs. Graduate study prepares scholars, but it also prepares teachers who will motivate and inspire future generations of students to consider becoming scholars themselves.

I do not wish to leave the impression that every language instructor candidate should be expected possess all imaginable strengths. Far from it. Every candidate will exhibit a different pattern of strengths (as in literature or any other specialization), and smart departments can assemble a constellation of strengths appropriate to their needs. Departments and programs responsible for the preparation and "training" of future language teachers can also make students aware of desirable standards of expertise, even if they cannot yet offer all of the coursework and training needed.

A Final Word

Language study has potential for a considerably greater contribution to the undergraduate curriculum than it currently provides. This potential includes significant practical (instrumental) accomplishment by language students, significant knowledge acquisition on the subject of culture and cross-cultural understanding, significant broadening of experience as a vital contribution to undergraduate education. Long-respected goals of U.S. college education include preparation for citizenship and employment in an increasingly sensitive multicultural nation and an inevitably multicultural world. No amount of globalization will alter the nature of communities and the inclinations of local cultures to define themselves in terms of shared experience or to persist in efforts to preserve their distinctiveness. Language study is a unique means of access to the values and attitudes that create that distinctiveness. Well-taught language courses that sensitize students to the cultural differences of even a single L2/C2 can alert them to the unpredictability of cross-cultural similarity and difference in other cultures that they will encounter.

Some of the opinions expressed here will certainly be considered controversial, but it is precisely my intention to provoke discussion, to urge us to stop considering language teaching as a matter of technique, and to demand that candidates demonstrate a level of content knowledge comparable to what we expect for literature, linguistics, or any other college subject. Reflection on aspects of the language instructor candidate profile should be useful both for hiring committees and for programs that prepare and "train" language instructors. In both cases I think we have set our sights too low, dealing with questions of *how* but paying scant attention to questions of *what*, sidetracked from the potential value of language study's contribution to undergraduate education by tacit assumptions that limit our aspirations and our accomplishment. Language instructors hired to teach college language courses are college faculty, and we should hold them to the same high standard as any member of the college professoriate. That means that whether we are teaching them or hiring them, we should demand a level of *content knowledge* appropriate to a specialist, and stop allowing ourselves to settle for less because others, whether students or colleagues, believe that what we are talking about is "just" language.

Notes

1. I have used "mastery" in order not to digress into the issue of "learning" vs. "acquisition," a distinction that is irrelevant to this point.
2. One designation for this kind of grammatical knowledge for teachers is "pedagogical grammar." See Rutherford and Smith 1988.
3. See also Kramsch (1988) on contrasting associations for French *jeu* (associated with leisure and fun) vs. American English *game* (associated with sports and competition).
4. See also Hanvey 1979; Galloway 1985, as summarized in Omaggio

Hadley 1993, p. 371. As a personal observation, I am convinced that such attitudes play a role in Russian language students' apparent unwillingness to conform to status distinctions in greetings and other social rituals characteristic of Russian culture. Students appear to earnestly believe that their democratic disregard for social status is preferable to the Russian status-conscious system they encounter, and at the same time they show an aversion to submitting to a status hierarchy that places them lower than their customary place in American society. The result is that they often behave in ways that are perceived as inappropriately and often rudely casual.

5. It should go without saying that no homogeneity of opinion or cultural perspective is intended. By "attitudes," "interpretations," "values," and other terms I intend a plurality of interpretations and attitudes.
6. Rutherford's summary draws on Kelly 1969.
7. For a helpful comparison of child language acquisition and adult language learning see Bley-Vroman 1988.
8. It should be emphasized again that this list is impressionistic and that variation is wide. For every tendency indicated here there are no doubt dozens of exceptions. Where those exceptions award greater privileges to non-ladder faculty we can be pleased, but exceptions do not alter the general tendency.
9. Certainly some of the non-tenure track appointments may be at the professorial level, but they are typically short-term and different in status from continuing appointments. According to Welles (2000), the remaining approximately 25% of Ph.D.s are spread among post-doctoral fellowships, academic administration, placement outside higher education, unknown employment, and unemployed.
10. Literature specialists may wonder how they could ask such questions if they themselves do not have a confident sense of the answers, and certainly having at least one language specialist on a hiring committee would be advantageous. Even without such assistance, however, the questions should be asked. Does the candidate offer something more than intuitive, experiential answers? Can the candidate contrast differing opinions or perspectives?

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   (VanPatten 1993)

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   Although exhortations to the contrary are easily found (Allwright 1981), the textbook, particularly the introductory textbook . . .

2. For a reference with page numbers, use a comma to separate date and page number. Precede the page number(s) with p. or pp.

   (Byrnes 1990, p. 42)

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   (Weinberg 1952, 2: p. 129)

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   (Smith and Jones 1991)

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   (Jones 1992; Light 1990, pp. 72–74; Smith 1991, p. 6)

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   (Kelly 1896, 1902a, 1902b)

   (Kelly 1896, p. 4; 1902a, pp. 120–122; 1902b, p. 45)

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1. If an author has both individual and coauthored works, all individual works precede coauthored ones.
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    b. within each group, organize by date (oldest first)
    c. if more than one work with same date, organize by alpha using a, b, c.

Clément, Richard. 1980. Ethnicity, Contact and Communicative Competence in a Second Language. In *Language: Social Psychological Perspectives,* edited by H. Giles, W. P. Robinson, and P. M. Smith, 147–154. Oxford: Pergamon.

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Clément, Richard, Zoltán Dörnyei, and Kimberly A. Noels. Submitted for publication. Motivation, Self-Confidence, and Group Cohesion in the Foreign Language Classroom.

Three-em Dashes (———) for Repeated Names:

Do not use when a coauthor is first added. If the same author is used again, add 3-em.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 1990a. Analysis of Motivation Components in Foreign Language Learning. Paper presented at the Ninth World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Greece.

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1. Personal names beginning with "Mc" or any abbreviated forms of "Mac" should be indexed under "Mac" as though the full form were used.

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Journal Article: One Author (16.104)

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